CONCISE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

KITTREDGE AND FARLEY

T. Bayley

A CONCISE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

WITH EXERCISES

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PREFACE

The favor accorded to "An Advanced English Grammar" has led the authors, in response to many requests from experienced teachers, to prepare this brief manual — of similar grade — for use in those courses of study which require a very concise textbook.

The plan will appear from the Table of Contents. Part One, which may serve either as an introduction or as a preliminary review, gives a rapid survey of the Parts of Speech in the Sentence and an explanation of their substitutes — the Phrase and the Clause. Part Two deals systematically with Inflection and Syntax, and closes with chapters on Clauses as Parts of Speech and the Meanings of Subordinate Clauses (as expressing time, place, cause, concession, purpose, result, condition, comparison, indirect discourse, and indirect question). Particular attention is paid to several matters that often give trouble to the student — such as *shall and will*, conditional sentences, and indirectness in assertions and questions. Part Three treats of Analysis. An Appendix contains Lists of Verbs and Tables of Conjugation.

The Exercises (pp. 157–208) follow the text in the same order of treatment, and references at the head of each, as well as parallel references in the Table of Contents, make it easy for the teacher to utilize them in connection with the topics which they illustrate. This arrangement obviates the necessity of interrupting the exposition of grammatical principles at every turn, and thus lends to pp. 1–156 a continuity otherwise unattainable. The passages selected for parsing, analysis, etc.,

are, without exception, taken from distinguished British and American writers. There is also a good supply of constructive exercises, many of which afford practice in avoiding common errors of speech.

The terminology already adopted by the authors in their "Advanced English Grammar" was found to agree in most respects with that recommended by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature. In the present book the few details of divergence have been so adjusted that teachers who wish to adopt the Committee's plan in all particulars may do so without difficulty, while those who prefer certain old established terms will find them in their accustomed places. An unusually full Index facilitates this adjustment.

G. L. K.
F. E. F.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

PART ONE

THE PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE SENTENCE

1. Words are the signs of ideas. The meanings of these signs are settled by custom or tradition. Spoken words are signs made with the vocal organs; written words are signs made with the pen to represent the spoken words.

Language is the expression of thought by means of spoken or written words.

Most words are the signs of definite ideas: as, — *Charles, captain, cat, strike, dive, climb, triangular, careless.*

Other words, of less definite meaning, serve to connect the more definite words and to show their relations to each other in connected speech: as, — *from, in, and, but, if.*

2. The relation in which a word stands to other words in connected speech is called its **construction,** and the orderly system of constructions in language is called **syntax.**

Inflection is a change in the form of a word indicating some change in its meaning: as, — *boy, boy's; man, men; drink, drank.*

Grammar is the science which treats of the forms and the constructions of words.

The rules of grammar derive their authority from good usage, — that is, from the customs or habits followed by educated speakers and writers.

THE SENTENCE — SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

3. A sentence is a group of words which expresses a complete thought.

4. Sentences may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.

1. A declarative sentence declares or asserts something as a fact.

Fire burns.
Rain is falling.
The army approached the city.

2. An interrogative sentence asks a question.

Who is that officer?
Does Arthur Moore live here?

3. An imperative sentence expresses a command or a request.

Open the window.
Pronounce the vowels more distinctly.

4. An exclamatory sentence expresses surprise, grief, or some other emotion in the form of an exclamation or cry.

How calm the sea is!
What a noise the engine makes!

A declarative, an interrogative, or an imperative sentence is also **exclamatory** if it is uttered in an excited tone.

NOTE. All sentences, then, are either **exclamatory** or **non-exclamatory**. Similarly, a sentence of any class may be either **affirmative** or **negative** (i.e. "denying"). Thus, — "Tom rides well" (affirmative declarative); "Tom does not ride well" (negative declarative); "Go home" (affirmative imperative); "Do not go home" (negative imperative). This distinction, however, must not be pressed too far, for a sentence that is affirmative in form may be negative in meaning and *vice versa*. Thus, "What is left us but despair?" is equivalent to "Nothing is left" etc.; and "Are you not sorry?" often means in effect, "Of course you are sorry."

5. Every sentence consists of two parts, — a subject and a predicate. The subject of a sentence designates the person, place, or thing that is spoken of; the predicate is that which is said of the subject.

Thus, in the first example in § 4, the subject is *fire* and the predicate is *burns*. In the second, the subject is *rain;* the predicate, *is falling*. In the third, the subject is *the army;* the predicate, *approached the city*.

6. In imperative sentences, the subject (*thou* or *you*) is almost always omitted, because it is **understood** by both speaker and hearer without being expressed.

Such omitted words, which are present (*in idea*) to the minds of both speaker and hearer, are said to be "understood." Thus, in "Open the window," the subject is "*you* (understood)." If expressed, the subject would be emphatic: as,—"*You* open the window."

7. The subject of a sentence commonly precedes the predicate, but sometimes the predicate precedes.

Here comes Tom.
Over went the carriage.

A sentence in which the whole or a part of the predicate precedes the subject is said to be in the **inverted order.** This order is especially common in interrogative sentences.

How goes the world with you?

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

8. In accordance with their use in the sentence, words are divided into eight classes called parts of speech, — namely, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

I. NOUNS

9. A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing.

Examples: Lincoln, William, Elizabeth, sister, Chicago, island, star, window, happiness, anger, sidewalk, courage, loss.

II. PRONOUNS

10. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. It designates a person, place, or thing without naming it.

In "*I* am ready," the pronoun *I* is a convenient substitute for the speaker's name. In "*You* have forgotten *your* umbrella," the pronouns *you* and *your* designate the person to whom one is speaking.

Other pronouns are: *he, his, him; she, hers, her; it, its; this, that; who, whose, whom, which, what; myself, yourself, himself, themselves.*

11. Nouns and pronouns are called substantives.

Nouns and pronouns are very similar in their use. The difference is merely that the noun designates a person, place, or thing by **naming** it, and that the pronoun **designates,** but does not **name.** Hence the general term **substantive** is employed to include both nouns and pronouns.

12. The substantive to which a pronoun refers is called its antecedent.

Frank followed *his* father. [*Frank* is the antecedent of *his.*]
Eleanor is visiting *her* aunt.
The *book* has lost *its* cover.
The *trappers* sat round *their* camp fire.
Washington and *Franklin* served *their* country in different ways. [*Their* has two antecedents, connected by *and.*]

III. ADJECTIVES

13. An adjective is a word which describes or limits a substantive.[1]

This it usually does by indicating some quality.

An adjective is said to belong to the substantive which it describes or limits.

Little strokes fell *great* oaks.

14. An adjective limits a substantive by restricting the range of its meaning.

The noun *box*, for example, includes a great variety of objects. If we say "*wooden* box," we exclude boxes of metal, of paper, etc. If we use a second adjective (*small*) and a third (*square*), we limit the size and the shape of the box.

Most adjectives (like *wooden*, *square*, and *small*) **describe** as well as limit. Such words are called **descriptive adjectives.**

We may, however, limit the noun *box* to a single specimen by means of the adjective *this* or *that* or *the*, which does not **describe,** but simply points out, or **designates.** Such words are called **definitive** or **limiting adjectives.**

[1] In the technical language of grammar an adjective is said to *describe* a substantive when it describes the object which the substantive denotes.

IV. VERBS

15. A verb is a word which can assert something (usually an action) concerning a person, place, or thing.[1]

The wind *blows.*	Her jewels *sparkled.*
The horses *ran.*	Tom *climbed* a tree.
The fire *blazed.*	The dynamite *exploded.*

Some verbs express state or condition rather than action.

The treaty still *exists.*	Near the church *stood* an elm.
The book *lies* on the table.	My aunt *suffers* much from headache.

16. A group of words may be needed, instead of a single verb, to make an assertion.

A group of words that is used as a verb is called a verb-phrase.

You *will see.*	We *might have invited* her.
The tree *has fallen.*	Our driver *has been discharged.*

17. Certain verbs, when used to make verb-phrases, are called **auxiliary** (that is, "aiding") **verbs**, because they help other verbs to express action or state of some particular kind.

Thus, in "You *will see*," the auxiliary verb *will* helps *see* to express **future** action; in "We *might have invited* her," the auxiliaries *might* and *have* help *invited* to express action that was **possible** in past time.

The auxiliary verbs are *is* (*are, was, were*), *may, can, must, might, shall, will, could, would, should, have, had, do, did.*

The auxiliary verb comes first in a verb-phrase, and may be separated from the rest of it by some other word or words.

Where *was* Washington *born?*
The boat *was* slowly but steadily *approaching.*
You *must* never *be discouraged.*

18. *Is* (in its various forms) and several other verbs may be used to frame sentences in which some word or words in the predicate describe or define the subject.

[1] The usual brief definition of a verb is, "A verb is a word which asserts." But this definition in strictness applies only to verbs in declarative sentences.

1. Gold *is* a metal.
2. Charles *is* my friend's name.
3. The colors of this butterfly *are* brilliant.
4. Iron *becomes* red in the fire.
5. Our condition *seemed* desperate.
6. Bertram *proved* a good friend in this emergency.
7. My soul *grows* sad with troubles. — SHAKSPERE.

In the first sentence, the verb *is* not only **makes an assertion,** but it also **connects** the rest of the predicate (*a metal*) with the subject (*gold*) in such a way that *a metal* serves as a description or definition of *gold*. In sentences 4–7, *becomes*, *seemed*, *proved*, and *grows* are similarly used.

In such sentences *is* and other verbs that are used for the same purpose are called **copulative** or **linking verbs.**[1]

The forms of the verb *is* are very irregular. Among the commonest are: *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, and the verb-phrases *has been*, *have been*, *had been*, *shall be*, *will be*.[2]

V. ADVERBS

19. An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

To **modify** a word is to change or affect its meaning in some way. Thus, in "The river fell *rapidly*," the adverb *rapidly* modifies the verb *fell* by showing *how* the falling took place. In "I am *never* late," "This is *absolutely* true," "That is *too* bad," the italicized words are adverbs modifying adjectives; in "He came *very* often," "He spoke *almost* hopefully," "The river fell *too* rapidly," they are adverbs modifying other adverbs.

Most adverbs answer the question "How?" "When?" "Where?" or "To what degree or extent?"

The officer was *severely* reprimanded.
They sailed *north*.
The wind continued to blow *hard*.
He went *out immediately* and *away* he walked. — DEFOE.

[1] *Is* in this use is often called the **copula**, that is, the "joiner" or "link."
[2] For full inflection, see pp. 218–219.

20. Observe that adverbs modify verbs in much the same way in which adjectives modify nouns.

Adjectives	Adverbs
A *bright* fire burned.	The fire burned *brightly*.
A *fierce* wind blew.	The wind blew *fiercely*.

A word or group of words that changes or modifies the meaning of another word is called a modifier.

Adjectives and adverbs, then, are both **modifiers.** Adjectives modify substantives; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

VI. PREPOSITIONS

21. A preposition is a word placed before a substantive to show its relation to some other word in the sentence.

The substantive which follows a preposition is called its object.

A preposition is said to **govern** its object.

In "The surface *of* the water glistened," *of* makes it clear that *surface* belongs with *water*. In "Philip is *on* the river," *on* shows Philip's position with respect to the river. *In*, or *near*, or *beyond* would have indicated a different relation. *Water* is the object of the preposition *of*, and *river* is the object of the preposition *on*.

22. A preposition often has more than one object. Thus, — "Over *hill* and *dale* he ran."

VII. CONJUNCTIONS

23. A conjunction connects words or groups of words.

A conjunction differs from a preposition in having no object, and in indicating a less definite relation between the words which it connects.

In "Time *and* tide wait for no man," "The parcel was small *but* heavy," "He wore a kind of doublet *or* jacket," the conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, connect single words, — *time* with *tide*, *small* with *heavy*, *doublet* with *jacket*. In "Do not go *if* you are afraid," "I came *because* you sent for me," "Take my key, *but* do not lose it," each conjunction connects the entire group of words preceding it with the entire group following it.

VIII. INTERJECTIONS

24. An interjection is a cry or other exclamatory sound expressing surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other emotion or feeling.

Interjections usually have no grammatical connection with the groups of words in which they stand; hence their name, which means "thrown in."

EXAMPLES: *Oh!* I forgot. *Ah*, how I miss you! *Bravo! Alas!*

THE SAME WORD AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

25. The same word may be sometimes one part of speech, sometimes another. The meaning of a word in the sentence determines to what part of speech it belongs.

26. The chief classes of words thus variously used are (1) nouns and adjectives, (2) nouns and verbs, (3) adjectives and adverbs, (4) adjectives and pronouns, (5) adverbs and prepositions.

I. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

NOUNS	ADJECTIVES
Rubber comes from South America.	This wheel has a *rubber* tire.
That *brick* is yellow.	Here is a *brick* house.
The *rich* have a grave responsibility.	A *rich* merchant lives here.

The first two examples show how words that are commonly nouns may be used as adjectives; the third shows how words that are commonly adjectives may be used as nouns.

II. NOUNS AND VERBS

NOUNS	VERBS
Hear the *wash* of the tide.	*Wash* those windows.
Give me a *stamp*.	*Stamp* this envelope.
It is the *call* of the sea.	Ye *call* me chief.

Other examples are: act, address, ally, answer, boast, care, cause, close, defeat, doubt, drop, heap, hope, mark, offer, pile, place, rest, rule, sail, shape, sleep, spur, test, watch, wound.

III. Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives	Adverbs
That is a *fast* boat.	The snow is melting *fast*.
Draw a *straight* line.	The arrow flew *straight*.
Early comers get good seats.	Tom awoke *early*.

For an explanation of the form of these adverbs, see § 190.

IV. Adjectives and Pronouns

Adjectives	Pronouns
This man looks unhappy.	*This* is the sergeant.
That book is a dictionary.	*That* is a kangaroo.
Each day brings its opportunity.	I received a dollar from *each*.

For further study of this class of words, see pp. 44–47.

V. Adverbs and Prepositions

Adverbs	Prepositions
Jill came tumbling *after*.	He returned *after* the accident.
We went *below*.	*Below* us lay the valley.
The weeds sprang *up*.	We walked *up* the hill.

Other examples are: aboard, before, beyond, down, inside, underneath.

Miscellaneous examples of variation are the following: —

Noun.	The *calm* lasted for three days.
Adjective.	*Calm* words show quiet minds.
Verb.	*Calm* your angry friend.

Other examples are: iron, stone, paper, sugar, salt, bark, quiet, black, light, head, wet, round, square, winter, spring.

Noun.	*Wrong* seldom prospers.
Adjective.	You have taken the *wrong* road.
Adverb.	Edward often spells words *wrong*.
Verb.	You *wrong* me by your suspicions.

Noun.	The *outside* of the castle is gloomy.
Adjective.	We have an *outside* stateroom.
Adverb.	The messenger is waiting *outside*.
Preposition.	I shall ride *outside* the coach.

NOUN.	Sheep were feeding on the *down*.
ADJECTIVE.	This is a *down* grade.
ADVERB.	We must go *down*.
PREPOSITION.	The stream runs *down* the valley.
ADJECTIVE.	*That* boat is a sloop.
PRONOUN.	*That* is my uncle.
CONJUNCTION.	You said *that* you would help me.
ADJECTIVE.	*Neither* road leads to Utica.
PRONOUN.	*Neither* of us arrived in time.
CONJUNCTION.	*Neither* Tom nor I was late.
PREPOSITION.	I am waiting *for* the train.
CONJUNCTION.	You have plenty of time, *for* the train is late.
INTERJECTION.	*Hurrah!* the battle is won.
NOUN.	I heard a loud *hurrah*.
VERB.	The enemy flees. Our men *hurrah*.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

27. Two classes of verb-forms really belong to different parts of speech at one and the same time. These are the **infinitive** (which is both **verb** and **noun**) and the **participle** (which is both **verb** and **adjective**).

28. Each of the following sentences contains an **infinitive**:

To struggle was useless.
To escape is impossible.
To exercise regularly preserves the health.

To struggle is a **noun**, for (1) it is the subject of the sentence, and (2) the noun *effort* or *exertion* might be put in the place of *to struggle*. Similarly, the noun *escape* might be substituted for *to escape*, and *regular exercise* (a noun modified by an adjective) for *to exercise regularly*.

But these three forms (*to struggle*, *to escape*, and *to exercise*) are also **verbs**, for they express action, and one of them (*to exercise*) is modified by an adverb (*regularly*). Such forms, therefore, are noun-forms of the verb. They are classed with verbs, and are called **infinitives**.

29. The infinitive is a verb-form which partakes of the nature of a noun. It is commonly preceded by the preposition *to*, which is called the sign of the infinitive.

30. The infinitive without *to* is much used in verb-phrases.

I *shall go.*	Mary *may recite.*
John *will win.*	Jack *can swim.*

Such phrases will be studied with the inflection of verbs.

NOTE. That *go*, *win*, *recite*, and *swim* are infinitives may be seen by comparing the following sentences: — "I intend *to go*," "John is sure *to win*," "Mary is permitted *to recite*," "Jack is able *to swim*."

31. The following sentence contains two **participles** : —

Shattered and slowly *sinking*, the frigate drifted out to sea.

We recognize *shattered* as a form of the **verb** *shatter*, and *sinking* as a form of the **verb** *sink;* both express action, and *sinking* is modified by the adverb *slowly*. But *shattered* and *sinking* have also the nature of **adjectives**, for they describe the noun *frigate*. Such words, then, are adjective forms of the verb. They are classed with verbs, and are called **participles**, because they share (or participate in) the nature of adjectives.

32. The participle is a verb-form which has no subject, but which partakes of the nature of an adjective and expresses action or state in such a way as to describe or limit a substantive.

A participle is said to **belong to** the substantive which it describes or limits.

33. The chief classes of participles are **present participles** and **past participles**, so called from the time which they denote.

All present participles end in *ing*. Past participles have various forms, which will be studied in connection with the inflection of verbs (§ 325).

34. Participles are used in a variety of verb-phrases.

Tom *is coming.*	Your book *is found.*
The drums *are beating.*	The jewels *are lost.*
Our boat *was wrecked.*	They *have sold* their horses.
I *have sent* the money.	You *have broken* your watch.
He *has brought* me a letter.	The ship *had struck* on the reef.

Such phrases will be studied with the inflection of verbs.

SIMPLE AND COMPLETE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

35. A sentence may consist of but two words, — a noun or pronoun (the subject) and a verb (the predicate). Thus, —

Charles | swims.

Commonly, however, either the subject or the predicate, or both, will contain more than one word. Thus, —

Young Charles | swims slowly.

Here the **complete subject** (*young Charles*) consists of a noun (*Charles*) and an adjective (*young*), which describes *Charles*. The **complete predicate** consists of a verb (*swims*) and an adverb (*slowly*), which modifies *swims* by indicating *how* the action is performed.

The subject noun (*Charles*) and the predicate verb (*swims*) are the chief words in the sentence, for neither could be omitted without destroying it. They form the frame or skeleton of the whole. Either of the two modifiers, the adjective or the adverb, or both, might be omitted, without destroying the sentence; for this would still exist as the expression of a thought (*Charles swims*), though the thought would be less definite and exact.

36. The simple subject of a sentence is a noun or pronoun. It may be called the subject substantive.

The simple predicate of a sentence is a verb or verb-phrase. It may be called the predicate verb.

The simple subject, with such words as explain or complete its meaning, forms the complete subject.

The simple predicate, with such words as explain or complete its meaning, forms the complete predicate.

In each of the following sentences the **complete subject** and the **complete predicate** are separated by a vertical line, and the **simple subject** and the **simple predicate** are printed in italics: —

The *spider* | *spreads* her web.
The fiery *smoke* | *rose* upward in billowing volumes.

The general *feeling* among the English in Bengal | *was* strongly in favor of the Governor General.

The *Clives* | *had been settled* ever since the twelfth century on an estate of no great value near Market Drayton in Shropshire.

I | *have written* repeatedly to Mr. Hobhouse.

37. Two or more simple subjects may be joined to make one **compound subject,** and two or more simple predicates to make one **compound predicate.**

1. *Charles* and *Henry* | play tennis well.
2. *Frances* and *she* | are friends.
3. *Hats*, *caps*, *boots*, and *gloves* | were piled together in confusion.
4. The watch | *sank* and *was lost*.
5. The balloon | *rose* higher and higher and finally *disappeared*.
6. He | neither *smiled* nor *frowned*.
7. *Snow* and *ice* | *covered* the ground and *made* our progress difficult.

38. A compound subject or predicate consists of two or more simple subjects or predicates, joined, when necessary, by conjunctions. Either the subject or the predicate, or both, may be compound.

In the first example in § 37, two simple subjects (*Charles* and *Henry*) are joined by the conjunction *and* to make a compound subject. In the third, four substantives (*hats*, *caps*, *boots*, *gloves*) form a series in which the last two are joined by *and*. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth, the predicates are compound; in the seventh, both the subject and the predicate.

39. The following conjunctions may be used to join the members of a compound subject or predicate: *and* (*both . . . and*), *or* (*either . . . or; whether . . . or*), *nor* (*neither . . . nor*).

SUBSTITUTES FOR PARTS OF SPEECH

PHRASES

40. A group of words may take the place of a part of speech.

The Father of Waters is the Mississippi.
A girl *with blue eyes* stood *at the window*.
You *are looking* well.

The Father of Waters is used as a noun, since it names something. *With blue eyes* takes the place of an adjective (*blue-eyed*), and modifies *girl*. *At the window* indicates, as an adverb might, where the girl stood, and modifies *stood*. *Are looking* could be replaced by the verb *look*.

41. A group of connected words, not containing a subject and a predicate, is called a phrase.

A phrase is often equivalent to a part of speech.

A phrase is a **noun-phrase**, a **verb-phrase**, an **adjective phrase**, or an **adverbial phrase**, according as it is used as a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the examples in § 40, *the Father of Waters* is a noun-phrase; *with blue eyes*, an adjective phrase; *at the window*, an adverbial phrase; *are looking*, a verb-phrase.

42. Adjective or adverbial phrases consisting of a preposition and its object, with or without other words, may be called prepositional phrases.

Your umbrella is *in the corner*.
He has a heart *of oak*.
A cup *with a broken handle* stood *on the shelf*.
My house *of cards* fell *to the floor in a heap*.
Men *with red blood in their veins* are needed *in this emergency*.

CLAUSES — COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

43. Phrases must be carefully distinguished from **clauses.** The difference is that a clause contains a subject and a predicate and a phrase does not.

44. A clause is a group of words that forms part of a sentence and that contains a subject and a predicate.

The lightning flashed | and | the thunder roared.
The train started | when the bell rang.

Each of these sentences contains two clauses; but the relation between the clauses in the first sentence is very different from that between the clauses in the second.

In the first example, each of the two clauses makes a separate and distinct statement, and might stand by itself as a simple sentence, — that is, as a sentence having but one subject and one predicate. These clauses are joined by the conjunction *and*, which is not a part of either. No doubt the speaker

feels that there is some relation in thought between the two statements, or he would not have put them together as clauses in the same sentence. But there is nothing in the form of expression to show what that relation is. In other words, the two clauses are grammatically **independent,** for neither of them modifies (or affects the meaning of) the other. The clauses are therefore said to be **coördinate,** — that is, of the same "order" or rank, and the sentence is called **compound.**

In the second example, on the contrary, the relation between the two clauses is indicated with precision. One clause (*the train started*) makes the main statement, — it expresses the chief fact. Hence it is called the **main** (or **principal**) **clause.** The other clause (*when the bell rang*) is added because the speaker wishes to **modify** the main verb (*started*) by defining the time of the action. This clause, then, is used as a **part of speech.** Its function is the same as that of an adverb (*promptly*) or an adverbial phrase (*on the stroke of the bell*). For this purpose alone it exists, and not as an independent statement. Hence it is called a **dependent** (or **subordinate**) **clause,** because it **depends** (that is, "hangs") upon the main clause, and so occupies a lower or "subordinate" rank in the sentence. When thus constructed, a sentence is said to be **complex.**

45. An ordinary **compound sentence** (as we have seen in § 44) is made by joining two or more simple sentences, each of which thus becomes an **independent coördinate clause.**

In the same way we may join two or more **complex sentences,** using them as clauses to make one compound sentence: —

The train started when the bell rang, | and | Tom watched until the last car disappeared.

This sentence is manifestly **compound,** for it consists of two **coördinate clauses** (*the train started when the bell rang; Tom watched until the last car disappeared*) joined by *and.* Each of these two clauses is itself **complex,** for each could stand by itself as a complex sentence.

Similarly, a **complex** and a **simple** sentence may be joined as coördinate clauses to make a compound sentence.

The train started when the bell rang, | and | Tom gazed after it in despair.

Such a sentence, which is **compound in its structure,** but in which one or more of the coördinate clauses are **complex,** is called a **compound complex sentence.**[1]

46. A clause is a group of words that forms part of a sentence and that contains a subject and a predicate.

A clause used as a part of speech is called a subordinate clause. All other clauses are said to be independent.

Clauses of the same order or rank are said to be coördinate.

Sentences may be simple, compound, or complex.

1. A simple sentence has but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

2. A compound sentence consists of two or more independent coördinate clauses, which may or may not be joined by conjunctions.

3. A complex sentence consists of two or more clauses, one of which is independent and the rest subordinate.

A compound sentence in which one or more of the coördinate clauses are complex is called a compound complex sentence.

I. Simple Sentences

Iron rusts.

George V is king.

The rain washed the earth clean.

Dogs, foxes, and hares are quadrupeds. [Compound subject.]

The defendant rose and addressed the court. [Compound predicate.]

Merton and his men crossed the bridge and scaled the wall. [Both subject and predicate are compound.]

II. Compound Sentences

Shakspere was born in 1564; he died in 1616. [Two coördinate clauses; no conjunction.]

A rifle cracked, and the wolf fell dead. [Two clauses joined by the conjunction *and*.]

[1] **Compound complex sentences** are also called **complex compound sentences.** **For further study, see pp. 153–154.**

You must hurry, or we shall lose the train. [Two clauses joined by *or*.]

James Watt did not invent the steam engine, but he greatly improved it. [Two clauses joined by *but*.]

We would have hired a guide, but none of the mountaineers would go with us.

Either you have neglected to write or your letter has failed to reach me. [Two clauses joined by *either . . . or*.]

The following conjunctions may be used to join coördinate clauses: — *and* (*both . . . and*), *or* (*either . . . or*), *nor* (*neither . . . nor*), *but*, *for*.

III. Complex Sentences

Examples will be found in §§ 48–50.

Clauses as Parts of Speech

47. **Subordinate clauses,** like phrases, are used as **parts of speech.** They serve as substitutes for **nouns,** for **adjectives,** or for **adverbs.**

1. A subordinate clause that is used as a noun is called a noun (or substantive) clause.

2. A subordinate clause that modifies a substantive is called an adjective clause.

3. A subordinate clause that serves as an adverbial modifier is called an adverbial clause.

48. I. Noun (or Substantive) Clauses.

Success
That we should succeed in this plan } is improbable.

The thought in these two sentences is the same, but in the second it is more fully expressed. In the first, the subject is the noun *success;* in the second, the subject is the noun clause, *that we should succeed in this plan.* This clause is introduced by the conjunction *that;* the simple subject of the clause is the pronoun *we*, and the simple predicate is the verb-phrase *should succeed.* The first sentence is **simple;** the second is **complex.**

Substantive clauses are often introduced by the conjunction *that.*

49. II. Adjective Clauses. The following sentences illustrate the use of (1) an **adjective,** (2) an **adjective phrase,** (3) an **adjective clause,** as a modifier of the subject noun.

An *honorable* man
A man *of honor* } will not lie.
A man *who values his honor*

My *native* land
The land *of my birth* } lies far across the sea.
The land *where I was born*

The first two sentences in each group are **simple,** the third is **complex.**

50. III. Adverbial Clauses. The following sentences illustrate the use of (1) an **adverb,** (2) an **adverbial phrase,** (3) an **adverbial clause,** as a modifier of the predicate verb (or verb-phrase).

The lightning struck { *here.* / *on this spot.* / *where we stand.*

The game began { *punctually.* / *on the stroke of one.* / *when the clock struck.*

The banker will make the loan { *conditionally.* / *on one condition.* / *if you endorse my note.*

The first two sentences in each group are **simple,** the third is **complex.**

51. Adjective clauses may be introduced (1) by the pronouns *who, which,* and *that,* or (2) by adverbs like *where, whence, whither, when.*

Adverbial clauses may be introduced (1) by the adverbs *where, whither, whence, when, while, before, after, until, how, as,* or (2) by the conjunctions *because, though, although, if, that* (*in order that, so that*), *lest,* etc.

PART TWO

INFLECTION AND SYNTAX

CHAPTER I

INFLECTION — NOUNS

52. Inflection is a change of form in a word indicating some change in its meaning. A word thus changed in form is said to be inflected.

A word may be inflected (1) by the addition of a final letter or syllable (*dog*, *dogs*; *hunt*, *hunted*), (2) by the change of a letter (*man*, *men*), or (3) by a complete change of form (*good*, *better*, *best*).

The inflection of a substantive is called its **declension**; that of an adjective or an adverb, its **comparison**; that of a verb, its **conjugation.**

NOUNS

CLASSIFICATION — COMMON NOUNS AND PROPER NOUNS

53. A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing.

54. Nouns are divided into two classes — proper nouns and common nouns.

1. A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing: — Lincoln, Ruth, Alps, Denver, Amazon, Monday, Christmas.

2. A common noun is a name which may be applied to any one of a class of persons, places, or things: — clerk, street, town, desk, tree, cloud, chimney, childhood, idea, thought, letter, dynamo, cruiser.

Proper nouns begin with a capital letter; common nouns usually begin with a small letter.

55. A common noun becomes a proper noun when used as the particular name of a ship, a newspaper, an animal, etc.

Nelson's flagship was the *Victory*.
Give me this evening's *Herald*.
My spaniel's name was *Sport*.

A proper noun often consists of a group of words, some of which are perhaps ordinarily used as other parts of speech: as, — James Russell Lowell, Washington Elm, Eiffel Tower, Firth of Clyde, North Lexington Junction, Stony Brook.

56. A proper noun becomes a common noun when used as a name that may be applied to any one of a class of objects.

Lend me your *Webster*.
The museum owns two *Rembrandts* and a *Titian*.

Certain proper nouns, when used in a special sense, have become common nouns and generally begin with a small letter: as, — *macadam* (crushed stone for roads, so called from Macadam, the inventor), *mackintosh* (a waterproof garment), *napoleon* (a coin), *guinea* (twenty-one shillings).

57. A lifeless object, one of the lower animals, or any human quality or emotion is sometimes regarded as a person.

This usage is called **personification**, and the object, animal, or quality is said to be **personified**.

Each old poetic *Mountain*
Inspiration breathed around. — GRAY.

Smiles on past *Misfortune's* brow
Soft *Reflection's* hand can trace,
And o'er the cheek of *Sorrow* throw
A melancholy grace. — GRAY.

The name of anything personified is regarded as a proper noun and is usually written with a capital letter.

58. An abstract noun is the name of a quality or general idea: — blackness, length, beauty, precision, terror, elegance, thrift, perseverance, lunacy, egotism, fidelity, recklessness.

59. A collective noun is the name of a group, class, or multitude, and not of a single person, place, or thing: — crowd, squadron, sheaf, Associated Press, Gulf Steamship Company, senior class.

Abstract nouns are usually common, but become proper when the quality or idea is personified (§ 57). Collective nouns may be either proper or common. The same noun may be abstract in one of its meanings, collective in another.

They believe in *fraternity*. [Abstract.]
The student joined a *fraternity*. [Collective.]
We enjoy the *society* of our friends. [Abstract.]
This *society* was founded in 1724. [Collective.]

60. A noun consisting of two or more words united is called a compound noun: — (1) common nouns, — tablecloth, sidewalk, fireman, knife-edge, brother-in-law; (2) proper nouns, — Johnson, Elkhorn, Stratford-on-Avon, Lowell Junction.

The parts of a compound noun may be joined (with or without a hyphen) or written separately. In some words usage is fixed, in others it varies.

NOTE. The first part of a compound noun usually limits the second after the manner of an adjective. Indeed, many expressions may be regarded either (1) as compounds or (2) as phrases containing an adjective and a noun. Thus *railway conductor* may be taken as a compound noun, or as a noun (*conductor*) limited by an adjective (*railway*).

INFLECTION OF NOUNS

61. In the inflection of nouns and pronouns we have to consider **gender, number, person,** and **case.**

I. GENDER

62. Gender is distinction according to sex. Nouns and pronouns may be of the masculine, the feminine, or the neuter gender.

1. A noun or pronoun denoting a male being is of the masculine gender: as, — Joseph, boy, cockerel, buck, footman, he.

2. A noun or pronoun denoting a female being is of the feminine gender: as, — girl, Julia, hen, waitress, doe, squaw, she.

3. A noun or pronoun denoting a thing without animal life is of the neuter gender: as, — pencil, light, water, star, book, dust, leaf, it.

A noun or pronoun which is sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine is often said to be of **common gender:** as, — bird, artist, cat, Turk, musician.

63. A neuter noun may become masculine or feminine by **personification** (§ 57).

> Thou who didst waken from his summer dreams
> The blue Mediterranean. — SHELLEY.
>
> Stern daughter of the Voice of God!
> O Duty! — WORDSWORTH.
>
> O Music! sphere-descended maid,
> Friend of Pleasure, Wisdom's aid. — COLLINS.

64. A pronoun must be in the same gender as the noun for which it stands or to which it refers.

Each of the following pronouns is limited to a single gender: — *he, his, him* (masculine); *she, her, hers* (feminine); *it, its* (neuter).

All other pronouns vary in gender.

> *Robert* greeted *his* employer. [Masculine.]
> A *mother* passed with *her* child. [Feminine.]
> This *tree* has lost *its* foliage. [Neuter.]
> *Who* laughed? Was it *you?* [Masculine or feminine.]

65. The **gender** of masculine and of feminine nouns may be shown in various ways.

1. The male and the female of many kinds or classes of living beings are denoted by different words.

MASCULINE	FEMININE	MASCULINE	FEMININE
father	mother	gander	goose
husband	wife	drake	duck
uncle	aunt	cock	hen
king	queen	ram	ewe
monk	nun	bull	cow
wizard	witch	hart	hind
lord	lady	buck	doe
horse	mare	fox	vixen

2. Some masculine nouns become feminine by the addition of an ending.

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
heir	heiress	executor	executrix
baron	baroness	administrator	administratrix
lion	lioness	hero	heroine
prince	princess	sultan	sultana
emperor	empress	Philip	Philippa

Note. The feminine gender is often indicated by the ending *ess*. Frequently the corresponding masculine form ends in *or* or *er*: as, — actor, actress; governor, governess; waiter, waitress.

3. A few feminine words become masculine by the addition of an ending. Thus, — widow, widower; bride, bridegroom.

4. Gender may be indicated by the ending *man*, *woman*, *maid*, *boy*, or *girl*: — salesman, saleswoman, milkmaid, cash boy, cash girl.

5. A noun or a pronoun may be prefixed to a noun to indicate gender: — manservant, mother bird, he-wolf.

6. The gender of a noun may be indicated by some accompanying part of speech, usually by a pronoun.

My *cat* is always washing *his* face.
The *intruder* shook *her* head.

II. NUMBER

66. Number is that property of substantives which shows whether they indicate one person, place, or thing or more than one.

There are two numbers, — the singular and the plural.

The singular number denotes but one person, place, or thing. The plural number denotes more than one person, place, or thing.

67. Most nouns form the plural number by adding *s* or *es* to the singular: — mat, mats; wave, waves; bench, benches; dish, dishes.

1. If the singular ends in *s*, *x*, *z*, *ch*, or *sh*, the plural ending is *es*: — loss, losses; box, boxes; buzz, buzzes; match, matches; rush, rushes.

2. Many nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant take the ending *es* in the plural: — hero, heroes; cargo, cargoes; potato, potatoes; motto, mottoes; buffalo, buffaloes.

3. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel form their plural in *s*: — cameo, cameos; folio, folios.

4. The following nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant also form their plural in *s*: —

banjo	casino	dynamo	memento[1]	quarto	torso
bravo	chromo	halo[1]	octavo	solo	tyro
burro	contralto	junto	piano	soprano	zero[1]
canto	duodecimo	lasso	proviso	stiletto	

68. In some nouns the addition of the plural ending alters the spelling and even the sound of the singular form.

1. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *es* in the plural: — fly, flies; country, countries; berry, berries. Contrast: valley, valleys; monkey, monkeys; boy, boys.

Most proper names ending in *y*, however, take the plural in *s*: — Mary, Marys; Murphy, Murphys; Daly, Dalys; Rowley, Rowleys.

2. Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change the *f* to *v* and add *es* or *s*. Thus, — wharf, wharves; wife, wives; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves; thief, thieves; knife, knives; half, halves; calf, calves; life, lives; self, selves; sheaf, sheaves; loaf, loaves; leaf, leaves; elf, elves; beef, beeves.

69. A few nouns form their plural in *en*: — ox, oxen; brother, brethren (*or* brothers); child, children.

70. A few nouns form their plural by a **change of vowel.**

These are: man, men; woman, women; merman, mermen; foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice; louse, lice. Also compound words ending in *man* or *woman*, such as fireman, firemen; saleswoman, saleswomen; Dutchman, Dutchmen.

NOTE. *German, Mussulman, Ottoman, dragoman, firman,* and *talisman,* which are not compounds of *man,* form their plurals regularly: as, — *Germans, Mussulmans. Norman* also forms its plural in *s.*

71. A few nouns have the same form in both singular and plural: as, — deer, sheep, heathen, Japanese, Iroquois.

This *deer* was shot in Maine.
These *deer* are stragglers from the herd.
The *Iroquois* were organized as the Five Nations.

[1] *Halo, memento, zero* also form a plural in *es* (*haloes,* etc.).

72. A few nouns have two plurals, but usually with some difference in meaning.

Singular	Plural
brother	brothers (relatives) brethren (members of the same society)
horse	horses (animals) horse (cavalry)
foot	feet (parts of the body) foot (infantry)
sail	sails (on vessels) sail (vessels in a fleet)
head	heads (in usual sense) head (of cattle)
fish	fishes (individually) fish (collectively)
penny	pennies (single coins) pence (collectively)
cloth	cloths (pieces of cloth) clothes (garments)
die	dies (for stamping) dice (for gaming)

The *pennies* were arranged in neat piles.
English money is reckoned in pounds, shillings, and *pence*.

73. When **compound nouns** are made plural, the last part usually takes the plural form; less often the first part; rarely both parts.

Examples: spoonful, spoonfuls; bathhouse, bathhouses; forget-me-not, forget-me-nots; editor-in-chief, editors-in-chief; maid-of-honor, maids-of-honor; gentleman usher, gentlemen ushers; knight bachelor, knights bachelors; Lord Justice, Lords Justices; manservant, menservants.

74. Letters of the alphabet, figures, signs used in writing, and words regarded merely as words take *'s* in the plural.

"Embarrassed" is spelled with two *r*'s and two *s*'s.
Your *3*'s look like *8*'s.
Tell the printer to change the §'s to ¶'s.
Don't interrupt me with your *but*'s!

75. Foreign nouns in English sometimes retain their foreign plurals; but many have an English plural also.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
alumna (feminine)	alumnæ	genius	genii
alumnus (masculine)	alumni		geniuses
amanuensis	amanuenses	genus	genera
analysis	analyses	gymnasium	gymnasia
animalculum	animalcula[1]		gymnasiums
antithesis	antitheses	hippopotamus	hippopotami
appendix	appendices	hypothesis	hypotheses
	appendixes	larva	larvæ
axis	axes	memorandum	memoranda
bacillus	bacilli		memorandums
bacterium	bacteria	nebula	nebulæ
bandit	banditti	oasis	oases
	bandits	parenthesis	parentheses
basis	bases	phenomenon	phenomena
beau	beaux, beaus	radius	radii
candelabrum	candelabra	seraph	seraphim
cherub	cherubim		seraphs
	cherubs	species	species
crisis	crises	stratum	strata
cumulus	cumuli	synopsis	synopses
curriculum	curricula	tableau	tableaux
datum	data	tempo	tempi
ellipsis	ellipses	terminus	termini
erratum	errata	thesis	theses
formula	formulæ	trousseau	trousseaux
	formulas	vertebra	vertebræ

The two plurals sometimes differ in meaning: as, — "Michael Angelo and Raphael were *geniuses*"; "Spirits are sometimes called *genii*."

76. When a **proper name** with the title *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Miss*, or *Master*, is put into the plural, the rules are as follows: —

1. The plural of *Mr.* is *Messrs.* (pronounced *Messers*[2]). The name remains in the singular. Thus, — *Mr. Jackson*, plural *Messrs.* (or *the Messrs.*) *Jackson.*

[1] The English word *animalcule* (plural *animalcules*) is preferable. The plural *animalculæ* is erroneous.

[2] *Messrs.* is an abbreviation of the French *Messieurs.*

2. *Mrs.* has no plural. The name itself takes the plural form. Thus, — *Mrs. Jackson*, plural *the Mrs. Jacksons.*

3. In the case of *Miss*, sometimes the title is put into the plural, sometimes the name. Thus, — *Miss Jackson*, plural *the Misses Jackson* or *the Miss Jacksons.*

The latter expression is somewhat informal. Accordingly, it would not be used in a formal invitation or reply, or in addressing a letter.

4. The plural of *Master* is *Masters.* The name remains in the singular. Thus, — *Master Jackson*, plural *the Masters Jackson.*

Other titles usually remain in the singular, the name taking the plural form: as, — *the two General Follansbys.* But when two or more names follow, the title becomes plural: as, — *Generals Rolfe and Johnson.*

77. Some nouns, on account of their meaning, are seldom or never used in the plural. Such are many names of qualities (as *cheerfulness*, *mirth*), of sciences (as *chemistry*), of forces (as *gravitation*).

Many nouns, commonly used in the singular only, may take a plural in some special sense. Thus, —

earth (the globe)	earths (kinds of soil)
ice (frozen water)	ices (food)
tin (a metal)	tins (tin dishes or cans)
nickel (a metal)	nickels (coins)

78. Some nouns are used in the plural only.

Such are: annals, athletics, billiards, dregs, eaves, entrails, lees, nuptials, oats, obsequies, pincers, proceeds, riches, scissors, shears, suds, tweezers, tongs, trousers, victuals, vitals; and (in certain special senses) ashes, goods, links, scales, spectacles, stocks.

79. A few nouns are plural in form, but singular in meaning.

Such are: gallows, news, measles, mumps, smallpox (for *small pocks*), politics, and some names of sciences (as, civics, economics, ethics, mathematics, physics, optics).

Optics is a branch of *physics*; it treats of light.

III. PERSON

80. Person is that property of substantives which shows whether they denote (1) the speaker, (2) the person spoken to, or (3) the person spoken of.

A substantive is in the first person when it denotes the speaker, in the second person when it denotes the person spoken to, in the third person when it denotes the person or thing spoken of.

I, the *king*, command his presence. [First person.]
You, *Thomas*, broke the window. [Second person.]
Charles, come here. [Second person.]
He, the *fireman*, saved the train. [Third person.]
The *tower* suddenly collapsed. [Third person.]

There is a special pronoun for each of the three persons, but in nouns the distinction is in sense only, never in form.

IV. CASE

81. Substantives have inflections of case to indicate their grammatical relations to verbs, to prepositions, or to other substantives.

There are three cases, — the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**. The possessive case is often called the **genitive**.

The nominative and the objective case of a noun are always alike in form, and are often called the **common case**. In some pronouns, however, there is a difference (as, — *I, me ; he, him*).

82. The inflection of a substantive is called its **declension**. To **decline** a noun is to give its case-forms in order, first in the singular number and then in the plural.

	Singular			
Nominative	boy	horse	fly	chimney
Possessive	boy's	horse's	fly's	chimney's
Objective	boy	horse	fly	chimney
	Plural			
Nominative	boys	horses	flies	chimneys
Possessive	boys'	horses'	flies'	chimneys'
Objective	boys	horses	flies	chimneys

	Singular			
Nominative	calf	lass	man	deer
Possessive	calf's	lass's	man's	deer's
Objective	calf	lass	man	deer

	Plural			
Nominative	calves	lasses	men	deer
Possessive	calves'	lasses'	men's	deer's
Objective	calves	lasses	men	deer

Nominative Case

83. The **nominative case** is used in the following constructions: (1) the subject, (2) the predicate nominative, (3) the vocative (or nominative of direct address), (4) the exclamatory nominative (or nominative of exclamation), (5) appositive with a nominative, (6) the nominative absolute.

1. The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Water freezes.
Charles climbed the mountain.
The boy's *face* glowed with health and exercise.

2. A substantive standing in the predicate, but describing or defining the subject, agrees with the subject in case and is called a predicate nominative.

This stone is a *ruby*.
Lobsters are *crustaceans*.
Arnold proved a *traitor*.
Adams was elected *president*.

A predicate nominative is also called a **subject complement** or an **attribute**.

The rule for the case of the predicate nominative is particularly important with respect to pronouns (§ 120).

I am *he*.	Are you *she*?
It is *I*.	It was *we* who did it.

The predicate nominative is commonest after the copula *is* (in its various forms). It will be further studied in connection with intransitive and passive verbs (§§ 97–98, 248).

3. A substantive used for the purpose of addressing a person directly, and not connected with any verb, is called a vocative.

A vocative is in the nominative case, and is often called a nominative of direct address or a vocative nominative.

Come, *Ruth*, give me your hand.
Turn to the right, *madam*.

4. A substantive used as an exclamation is called an exclamatory nominative (or nominative of exclamation).

Peace, be still.
Fortunate *Ruth!*
A *drum!* a *drum!* Macbeth doth come.

Some exclamatory nominatives are often called interjections (§ 365).

5. A substantive added to another substantive to explain it and signifying the same person or thing, is called an appositive and is said to be in apposition.

An appositive is in the same case as the substantive which it limits.

Hence a substantive in apposition with a nominative is in the nominative case.

Mr. Scott, the *grocer*, is here. [Apposition with subject.]
Tom, old *fellow*, I am glad to see you. [Apposition with vocative.]
The discoverer of the Pacific was Balboa, a *Spaniard*. [Apposition with predicate nominative.]

NOTE. *Apposition* means "attachment"; *appositive* means "attached noun or pronoun." An appositive modifies the noun with which it is in apposition much as an adjective might do (compare "Balboa, a *Spaniard*" with "*Spanish* Balboa"). Hence it is classed as an adjective modifier.

For the **nominative absolute**, see § 336.

POSSESSIVE (OR GENITIVE) CASE

84. The possessive case denotes ownership or possession.

John's yacht lies at her moorings.
The *duck's* feet are webbed.

NOTE. Most uses of the possessive come under the general head of **possession** in some sense; all others indicate **connection** of some kind. Special varieties are **source** (as in "*hen's* eggs"), **authorship** (as in "*Wordsworth's* sonnets"), and **measure or extent** (as in "a *day's* work").

A possessive noun or pronoun modifies the substantive to which it is attached as an adjective might do and is classed as an adjective modifier.

85. The possessive case of most nouns has, in the singular number, the ending *'s*: — Jane's hat, the owl's head, the boy's name.

Plural nouns ending in *s* take no further ending for the possessive. In writing, however, an apostrophe is put after the *s* to indicate the possessive case: — the owls' heads, the boys' names.

Plural nouns not ending in *s* take *'s* in the possessive: — the firemen's ball, the policemen's quarters, the children's hour.

86. Nouns like *sheep* and *deer*, which have the same form in both the singular and the plural, usually take *'s* in the possessive plural. Thus, *the deer's tracks* would be written, whether one deer or more were meant.

87. 1. Monosyllabic nouns ending in *s* or an *s*-sound usually make their possessive singular by adding *'s*.

EXAMPLES: Charles's hat, Forbes's garden, Mr. Wells's daughter, Rice's carriage, Mrs. Dix's family, a fox's brush.

I appear at *St. James's* coffee house. — ADDISON.
We are arrived at the crisis of *Burns's* life. — CARLYLE.

NOTE. Most of these monosyllabic nouns in *s* are family names. The rule accords with the best usage; but it is not absolute, for usage varies. Hence forms like *Charles'* and *Wells'* cannot be condemned as positively wrong, though *Charles's* and *Wells's* are preferable. In speaking, the shorter form is often ambiguous, for there is no difference in sound between *Dix'* and *Dick's*, *Mr. Hills'* and *Mr. Hill's*, *Dr. Childs'* and *Dr. Child's*.

2. Nouns of two or more syllables ending in *s* or an *s*-sound, and not accented on the last syllable, may make their possessive singular by adding *'s*, or may add an apostrophe only. In the latter case, there is no difference in sound between the possessive and the nominative.

EXAMPLES: Burrows's (*or* Burrows') Hotel, Æneas's (*or* Æneas') voyage, Beatrice's (*or* Beatrice') gratitude, Felix's (*or* Felix') arrival, for conscience's (*or* conscience') sake. [When in doubt, add *'s*.]

I would sooner take *Empedocles's* leap. — COWPER.
What was the *countess's* Dutch name? — THACKERAY.
Wallace's strength was beyond that of ordinary mortals. — SCOTT.
It was moved by *Halifax's* stepfather. — MACAULAY.
Cite a passage from Mr. *Malthus'* "Political Economy." — DE QUINCEY.

88. In older English and in poetry the possessive case of nouns is freely used, but in modern prose it is rare unless the possessor is a living being. A phrase with *of* is used instead.

The mayor *of Detroit* (NOT *Detroit's* mayor).
The top *of the post* (NOT the *post's* top).
The prevalence *of the epidemic* (NOT the *epidemic's* prevalence).

NOTE. When the possessor is a living being, good usage varies: — "*John's* generosity" or "The generosity *of John*." If the object possessed is a material thing, the possessive is generally used in the singular: as, — "*John's* hat"; but the plural possessive is often replaced by an *of*-phrase, to avoid ambiguity: as, — "The jewels *of the ladies*" (for "The *ladies'* jewels").

89. When a thing belongs to two or more **joint owners**, the sign of the possessive is added to the last name only.

Brown, Jones, and Richardson's factories. [Brown, Jones, and Richardson are partners.]
It is George and William's turn to take the boat. [George and William are to go in the boat together.]
On the other hand, in order to avoid ambiguity we should say, "Brown's, Jones's, and Richardson's factories," if each individual had a factory of his own; and "George's and William's answers were correct," if each boy answered independently of the other.

90. In **compound nouns** the last part takes the possessive sign. So also when a phrase is used as a noun.

My *father-in-law's* home is in Easton.
Tom the blacksmith's daughter is here (*or*, The daughter of Tom the blacksmith).

91. The noun denoting the object possessed is often omitted when it may be readily understood, especially in the predicate.

Conant's [shop] is open until noon.
I buy my hats at *Bryant's* [shop].
We will dine at *Pennock's* [restaurant].
That camera is *mine*. (See § 122.)

A similar idiom is common in such expressions as: — "He was a relative of *John's*"; "That careless tongue of *John's* will get him into trouble." In the first example, "a relative of John's" means "a relative of (= *from among*) John's relatives." The second example shows an extension of this construction by analogy. See § 122.

Objective Case

92. The **objective case,** as its name implies, is the case of the **object.** Most of its uses are covered by the following rule: —

The object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

The object of a preposition has already been explained and defined (§§ 21–22).

93. The **object of a verb** may be (1) the direct object, (2) the predicate objective (or the adjunct), (3) the indirect object, (4) the cognate object.

The objective is also used (5) adverbially (§ 111), (6) in apposition with another objective (§ 112), and (7) as the subject of an infinitive (§ 113).

1. Direct Object of a Verb

94. Some verbs may be followed by a substantive denoting that which receives the action or is produced by it. These are called transitive verbs. All other verbs are called intransitive.

1. That man *struck* my *dog*.
2. The arrow *hit* the *target*.
3. The coachman *mended* the *harness*.
4. The fall *broke* my *arm*.
5. The farmer *raises corn*.
6. Mr. Eaton *makes stoves*.
7. Who *wrote* that *book?*

In Nos. 1–4, the verb is followed by a noun denoting the **receiver of the action.** Thus, in the first sentence, the *dog* receives the blow; in the second, the *target* receives the action of hitting. In Nos. 5–7, the verb is followed by a noun denoting the **product** of the action. For example, the *corn* is **produced** by the action expressed by the verb *raises*.

In each example, the noun that follows the verb **completes the sense** of the verb. "That man *struck* ——." "Struck *whom?*" "He struck my *dog*." Until *dog* is added the sense of the verb *struck* is incomplete.

95. A substantive that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called its direct object, and is said to be in the objective case.

Thus, in the examples in § 94, *dog* is the direct object of the transitive verb *struck; target* is the direct object of *hit*, — and so on. Each of these nouns is therefore in the **objective case.**

The **direct object** is often called the **object complement**, or the **object of the verb**, and its case is also called the **accusative.**

96. Intransitive verbs have no object.

The lion *roared.*
The visitor *coughed* gently.
The log *drifted* downstream.

Compare these sentences with those in § 94. We observe that the verbs (unlike those in § 94) admit no object, since their meaning is complete without the addition of any noun to denote the receiver or product of the action.

97. The **predicate nominative** (§ 83, 2) must not be confused with the **direct object.** They resemble each other in two particulars: (1) both stand in the predicate, and (2) both complete the meaning of the verb. But they differ utterly in their relation to the subject of the sentence. For —

The **predicate nominative** describes or defines the **subject.** Hence both substantives denote the same person or thing.

Charles [SUBJECT] { is / was / became / was elected } *captain* [PREDICATE NOMINATIVE].

The **direct object** neither describes nor defines the subject. On the contrary, it designates that upon which the subject acts. Hence the two substantives regularly [1] denote different persons or things.

Charles [SUBJECT] { struck *James* [OBJECT]. / threw a *stone* [OBJECT]. / built a *boat* [OBJECT]. }

[1] The only exception is in reflexive action, where the object is a compound personal pronoun ("Charles deceived *himself*"). See § 126.

98. Both the direct object and the predicate nominative are classed as **complements**, because they are used to complete the sense of the predicate verb (§ 456).

99. A verb of *asking* sometimes takes **two direct objects**, one denoting the **person** and the other (called the **secondary object**) denoting the **thing**.

She asked the *boy* his *name*. Ask *me* no *favors*.

2. Predicate Objective

100. **Verbs of *choosing, calling, naming, making,* and *thinking* may take two objects referring to the same person or thing.**

The first of these is the direct object, and the second, which completes the sense of the predicate verb, is called a predicate objective.

We chose Oscar *president*. [*Oscar* is the direct object of *chose; president* is the predicate objective.]

I call John my *friend*.

They thought the man a *coward*.

Make my house your *home*.

The **predicate objective** is often called the **complementary object**, or the **objective attribute**, or the **adjunct accusative**. It is classed as a **complement**.

101. An adjective may serve as predicate objective.

I call this ship *unseaworthy*.
Your letter made your sister *anxious*.

3. Indirect Object and Similar Idioms

102. Besides the case of the direct object (often called **accusative**), English once had a case (called the **dative**) which meant *to* or *for* [somebody or something]. The dative case is easily distinguished in Greek, Latin, and German, but in English it has long been merged in form with the ordinary objective (or accusative).

103. **Some verbs of *giving, telling, refusing,* and the like, may take two objects, a direct object and an indirect object.**

The indirect object denotes the person or thing toward whom or toward which is directed the action expressed by the rest of the predicate.

Direct Object only	Direct and Indirect
Dick sold his bicycle.	Dick sold *John* his bicycle.
I gave permission.	I gave this *man* permission.
He paid a dollar.	He paid the *gardener* a dollar.
She taught Latin.	She taught my *children* Latin.

104. Most of the verbs that admit an indirect object are included in the following list: —

allot, allow, assign, bequeath, bring, deny, ensure, fetch, fling, forbid, forgive, give, grant, guarantee, hand, lease, leave, lend, let, owe, pardon, pass, pay, refund, refuse, remit, restore, sell, send, show, sing, spare, teach, tell, throw, toss, vouchsafe.

105. Pronouns are commoner as indirect objects than nouns.

They denied *her* the necessities of life.
I guaranteed *them* a handsome profit.
The king vouchsafed *them* an audience.

106. It is always possible to insert the preposition *to* before the indirect object without changing the sense.

Since the indirect object is equivalent to an adverbial phrase it is classed as a modifier of the verb.

Thus, in "Dick sold *John* his bicycle," *John* is an adverbial modifier of the predicate verb *sold*.

107. The indirect object is sometimes used without a direct object expressed. Thus, —

He paid the hatter.

Here *hatter* may be recognized as an indirect object by inserting *to* before it and adding a direct object ("his *bill*," "his *money*," or the like).

108. The objective case sometimes expresses the person *for whom* anything is done.

William made his *brother* a kite [= made a kite for his brother].
Sampson built *me* a boat [= built a boat for me].

This construction is called the **objective of service** (or the **dative of reference or concern**).

109. The objective case is used after *like*, *unlike*, *near*, and *next*, which are really adjectives or adverbs, though in this construction they are often regarded as prepositions.

The earth is like a *ball*. [*Like* is an adjective.]
She sang like a *bird*. [*Like* is an adverb.]
That answer was unlike *Joseph*. [*Unlike* is an adjective.]
This man walks unlike *Joseph*. [*Unlike* is an adverb.]
My office is near the *station*. [*Near* is an adjective.]
A stream ran near the *hut*. [*Near* is an adverb.]

The nature of the construction after *like*, etc., may be seen (as in the indirect object) by inserting *to* or *unto* ("She sang *like unto* a bird").

NOTE. The indirect object, the objective of service, and the objective after *like*, *unlike*, and *near* are all survivals of old dative constructions.

4. Cognate Object

110. A verb that is regularly intransitive sometimes takes as object a noun whose meaning closely resembles its own.

Such a noun is called the cognate object of the verb and is in the objective case.

He ran a *race*.
The mayor coughed a dubious, insinuating *cough*.
She sleeps the *sleep* of death.

April, April,
Laugh thy girlish *laughter;*
Then, the moment, after,
Weep thy girlish *tears*. — WATSON.

NOTE. *Cognate* means "kindred" or "related." The cognate object repeats the idea of the verb, often with some modification, and may be classed as an adverbial modifier. Its difference from the direct object may be seen by contrasting "The blacksmith struck the *anvil*" with "The blacksmith struck a mighty *blow*" (cf. "struck *mightily*").

For *it* as cognate object, see § 124.

5. Adverbial Objective

111. A noun, or a phrase consisting of a noun and its modifiers, may be used adverbially. Such a noun is called an adverbial objective.

We have waited *years* for this reform.
The river is *miles* away.
That anchor weighs *tons*.
This is *an inch* too long.
My father is *ninety years* old.
I will stay *a short time*.
Come here *this instant!*
Turn your eyes *this way*.
This silk is *several shades* too light.

A group of words consisting of an adverbial objective with its modifier or modifiers forms an **adverbial phrase** (§ 41).

Thus, in the preceding sentences, *ninety years*, *a short time*, *this instant*, etc., are adverbial phrases. We could substitute for *ninety years* the adverb *extremely*; for *a short time*, the adverb *awhile*; for *this instant*, the adverb *instantly*; for *this way*, the adverb *hither*; for *several shades*, the adverb *decidedly*.

6. Objective in Apposition

112. A substantive in apposition with an objective is itself in the objective case (§ 83, 5).

Yesterday I saw Williams the *expressman*. [Apposition with the direct object of *saw*.]

Tom gave his friend *John* a book. [Apposition with the indirect object *friend*.]

He lives with Andrews the *blacksmith*. [Apposition with the object of the preposition *with*.]

Edwin had two bad faults, *laziness* and *inaccuracy*. [Both nouns are in apposition with *faults*, the direct object of *had*.]

7. Subject of an Infinitive

113. The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

I believe $\left\{\begin{matrix} him \\ John \end{matrix}\right\}$ to be my friend. [Here *him* (*John*) *to be* = *that he* (*John*) *is*. The objective *him* (*John*) is the subject of the infinitive *to be*.]

This construction will be treated in connection with the uses of the infinitive (§ 315).

Parsing

114. To **parse** a word is to describe its grammatical form and to give its construction.

In parsing a **noun**, we mention the class to which it belongs, give its gender, number, person, and case, and tell why it is in that case. Thus, —

1. Frank shot a wolf.

Frank is a proper noun of the masculine gender, in the singular number and third person. It is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *shot*.

Wolf is a common noun of the masculine or feminine [or common] gender, in the singular number and third person. It is in the objective case, because it is the object [or direct object] of the transitive verb *shot*.

2. Jane, come here.

Jane is a proper noun of the feminine gender, in the singular number and second person. It is in the nominative case, being used as a vocative [or in direct address].

3. The rope is fifteen feet long.

Feet is a common noun of the neuter gender, in the plural number and third person. It is in the objective case, being used as an adverbial modifier of the adjective *long*.

4. Edgar's boat is a sloop.

Edgar's is a proper noun of the masculine gender, in the singular number and third person. It is in the possessive (or genitive) case, modifying the noun *boat*.

CHAPTER II

PRONOUNS

115. **A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. It designates a person, place, or thing without naming it.**

The substantive to which a pronoun refers is called its antecedent.

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (§ 12).

Pronouns have in general the same constructions as nouns.

116. Pronouns are classified as (1) **personal,** (2) **adjective,** (3) **relative,** and (4) **interrogative.** Under adjective pronouns are included **demonstrative pronouns** and **indefinite pronouns.**

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

117. **The personal pronouns distinguish (1) the speaker, (2) the person spoken to, and (3) the person, place, or thing spoken of** (§ 80).

Singular		Plural	
	The Pronoun of the First Person: *I*		
Nominative	I	*Nominative*	we
Possessive	my *or* mine	*Possessive*	our *or* ours
Objective	me	*Objective*	us
	The Pronoun of the Second Person: *thou*		
Nominative	thou	*Nominative*	you *or* ye
Possessive	thy *or* thine	*Possessive*	your *or* yours
Objective	thee	*Objective*	you *or* ye

The Pronoun of the Third Person: *he, she, it*

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Possessive	his	her *or* hers	its	their *or* theirs
Objective	him	her	it	them

Unlike nouns, most of the personal pronouns have distinct forms for the nominative and the objective.

GENDER AND NUMBER

118. The pronouns of the first and second persons (*I* and *thou*) may be either masculine or feminine.

The pronouns of the third person have different forms for masculine, feminine, and neuter in the **singular** (*he, she, it*); but in the **plural** the form *they* serves for all three genders.

119. *Thou, thy, thine, thee,* and *ye* are old forms still found in poetry and the solemn style.

In ordinary prose, *you, your,* and *yours* are used for the second person, whether singular or plural. Yet *you* always takes the verb-forms that go with plural subjects. Thus, —

My friend, *you were* [NOT *was*] in error.

Hence *you* may be regarded as always plural *in form,* but as singular *in sense* when it stands for one person only.

CASE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

120. Nominative constructions of the personal pronouns are the same as those of nouns (§ 83).

I am ready. [Subject.]
It is *I*. [Predicate nominative.]
If anybody is guilty, it is *he*.
Here, *you* rascal, what are you about? [Vocative, direct address.]
Therein, *ye* gods, you make the weak most strong. — SHAKSPERE.
Poor *you!* [Nominative of exclamation.]
General Austin, *he* and no other, won the battle. [Apposition.]

For the nominative absolute, see § 336.

Care must be taken not to use an objective form when a predicate nominative is required: — "It is *I*" [NOT *me*.]

121. In **imperative sentences** the subject (*you*) is commonly omitted: as, — "Shut the door."

NOTE. The subject *I* is sometimes omitted in wishes (as, "*Would* he were here!" for "I would that he were here"). So also in "Thank you," "Pray tell me" (compare *prithee* for "I pray thee").

122. The **possessive** forms *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their* are used when a noun follows; *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* cannot be followed by a noun, and stand commonly in the predicate. *His* may be used in either way.

My brother has arrived.	The fault is *mine*.
Our work is done.	Those seats are *ours*.
I have torn *your* glove.	This pencil is *yours*.
Their turn has come.	That field is *theirs*.
His hair is black.	The book is not *his*.

Examples of *mine*, *yours*, etc. not in the predicate are: —

Mine was a terrier; *yours* was a pointer.
A friend of *mine* told me this. [See § 91.]
Theirs is a red motor car; *ours* is green.
His leaked badly.
His name is Martin; *hers* is Smith.

123. When two or more separate objects are spoken of as possessed, a possessive should precede the name of each if there is danger of ambiguity.

I will send for our secretary and our treasurer. [Two persons.]
I will send for our secretary and treasurer. [One person.]
I have called for my bread and my milk. [Two things.]
I have called for my bread and milk. [A mixture.]

124. The commonest constructions in which personal pronouns take the **objective case** are the following: —

1. Object of a preposition (§ 92): as, —

Take it from *him*.

2. Direct object of a transitive verb (§ 95): as, —

I will find *you*.

3. Indirect object of a transitive verb (§ 103): as, —

He gave *me* a dollar.

4. Subject of an infinitive (see § 316).

NOTE. In poetry the objective *me* is sometimes used in exclamations: as, — "*Me* miserable!" (MILTON). *It* may be used colloquially as cognate object (§ 110): as, — "I think I shall farm *it* a little."

THE *SELF*-PRONOUNS (COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS)

125. The three **compound personal pronouns** are made by adding the word *self* to certain forms of the personal pronouns. Thus,—

myself, *plural* ourselves;
thyself *or* yourself, *plural* yourselves;
himself, herself, itself, *plural* themselves.

To these may be added the indefinite *oneself*, more commonly written as two words, *one's self* (§ 139).

126. 1. The compound personal pronouns may be used to emphasize substantives. In this use they are called intensive pronouns.

I *myself* will go.
King Alfred *himself* took the field.
They did the work *themselves*.

An intensive pronoun is in apposition with the substantive to which it refers.

2. The compound personal pronouns may be used as the objects of transitive verbs or of prepositions when the object denotes the same person or thing as the subject. In this use they are called reflexive pronouns.

I have hurt *myself*.
We have only *ourselves* to blame.
King Alfred interested *himself* in his subjects.
These schemers deceived *themselves*.
Mary was talking to *herself*.
He gave *himself* a holiday. [Indirect object.]

These pronouns are called **reflexive** (that is, "bending back") because they **refer back** to the subject and repeat its meaning.

127. The adjective *own* is sometimes inserted between the first and the second part of the *self*-pronouns for emphasis.

EXAMPLES: my own self, your own self, his own self, our own selves, their own selves.

In this use, *self* is in strictness a noun limited by the possessive and by the adjective *own*, but the phrases may be regarded as compound pronouns. Other adjectives are sometimes inserted between the possessive and *self*: as, — my *very* self, his *worthless* self.

128. The intensive pronouns are sometimes used without a substantive: — "You are hardly *yourself* to-day."

129. The intensive pronouns should not be used as simple personal pronouns: — "They invited my wife and *me*" (NOT *myself*).

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

130. Some words are used either as adjectives or as pronouns. Such words are called adjective pronouns.

Adjective pronouns are classified, according to their meaning, as (1) **demonstrative pronouns** and (2) **indefinite pronouns.**

I. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

131. The demonstratives are *this* (plural, *these*), *that* (plural, *those*). They point out persons or things for special attention and may be used either as adjectives or as pronouns.

I. As adjectives: —

This sailor saved my life.
Give *this* boy a dime.
This fire is too hot.
That saw is dull.
Send *that* dog home.

These girls are energetic.
These cherries are sour.
Look at *these* acorns.
Those trees are dying.
Do you see *those* rocks?

In their adjective use these pronouns are often called **demonstrative adjectives.**

II. As pronouns: —

This is a fine morning.
Can you do *this*?
This is the road.
That is Ellen in the canoe.
What is *that*?

These are cowboys.
Robert gave me *these*.
Who are *these*?
Those are deer.
What are *those*?

If the demonstrative is followed by a noun which it limits (as in "*this* sailor"), it is an adjective. If the demonstrative points out something which it does not name (as in "*This* is a fine morning"), it takes the place of a noun and is therefore a pronoun.

NOTE. *Yon*, *yond*, and *yonder* are common as demonstratives in older English and in poetry. Thus, — "Call *yonder* fellow hither" (*Henry V*).

132. Demonstratives have only the inflection of number. They have the same form for all three genders. The nominative and objective cases are alike; the possessive is replaced by *of* with the objective.

Singular		Plural	
Nom. and Obj.	this	*Nom. and Obj.*	these
Possessive	[of this]	*Possessive*	[of these]
Nom. and Obj.	that	*Nom. and Obj.*	those
Possessive	[of that]	*Possessive*	[of those]

133. A demonstrative pronoun may be used to avoid the repetition of a noun.

My dog and *that* [= the dog] of my friend John have been fighting.
Compare these maps with *those* [= the maps] on the blackboard.

134. The singular forms *this* and *that* (not the plurals *these* and *those*) are used with the nouns *kind* and *sort*.

I like *this* kind of grapes.
I have met *this* sort of people before.
That kind of apples grows in Idaho.

II. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

135. The indefinite pronouns point out objects less clearly or definitely than demonstratives do: as, — each, every, either, both, neither, some, any, such, none, other, another, each other, one another.

Each has its merits.
Some are missing.
I cannot give you *any*.
Either is correct.
He knows *neither* of you.
I like *both*.

136. Most indefinites may be either **pronouns** or **adjectives.** But *none* is always a substantive in modern use, and *every* is always an adjective.

137. *None* may be either singular or plural. When it means *not one*, it is singular. Sometimes either construction is permissible.

None of us has the key.
None was (*or* were) left to tell the tale.

138. *Each other* and *one another* are regarded as compound pronouns. They designate related persons or things.

My neighbor and I like *each other*.
We must bear with *one another*.

The relation indicated by these pronouns is that of reciprocity. Hence they are often called **reciprocal pronouns**.

There is no real distinction between *each other* and *one another*. The rules sometimes given for such a distinction are not supported by the best usage.

139. *One* (possessive *one's*) is often used as an indefinite personal pronoun. Thus, —

One hardly knows what to think of him.
One does not like *one's* [NOT *his* or *their*] motives to be doubted.

The use of *his* (for *one's*) to refer back to a preceding *one* is common in respectable writers, but is contrary to the best usage.

140. *All*, *several*, *few*, *many*, and similar words are often classed as indefinites. They may be used as adjectives or as substantives. *Everybody*, *everything*, *anybody*, *anything*, *somewhat*, *aught*, *naught*, etc., are called indefinite nouns.

Every one, *any one*, *some one*, *each one*, and *no one* may also be classed as indefinite nouns.

141. Care should be taken in framing such sentences as the following: —

Everybody has *his* [NOT *their*] faults.
If anybody wishes to go, *he* [NOT *they*] may.
If anybody objects, let *him* [NOT *them*] speak.
Every pupil must hand in *his* [NOT *their*] composition to-day.
Each hurries toward *his* [NOT *their*] home.
Each of us must lead *his* [NOT *their*] own life.

In sentences of this kind, the personal pronoun (*he*, *his*, *him*) must be in the singular to agree with its antecedent (*everybody*, *anybody*, etc.) (see § 115).

NOTE. When the antecedent is of common gender (as in the last example), the personal pronoun (*he*, *his*, *him*) may be regarded as of common gender also. In very precise or formal language, one may say *he or she*, *his or her*: as, — "Each of us must lead *his or her* own life"; but this form of expression is to be avoided unless the distinction is clearly necessary.

142. When used as adjectives, none of the indefinites have any forms of inflection. The same is true when they are pronouns, except as follows: —

Others is used as the plural of *another*. The possessive forms are: — singular, *another's;* plural, *others'*. *The other* (possessive, *the other's*) has in the plural *the others* (possessive, *the others'*). *Each other* and *one another* add *'s* in the possessive. *One* has a possessive *one's; the one* becomes *the ones* in the plural.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

143. **Relative pronouns** have a peculiar function in the sentence, since they serve both as **pronouns** and as **connectives.** Their use may be seen by comparing the two sentences that follow: —

1. This is the sailor, and he saved my life.
2. This is the sailor who saved my life.

Each consists of two parts or clauses (§ 44). In No. 1, the two clauses are connected by the conjunction *and*, which belongs to neither; the pronoun *he*, which stands for *sailor*, is the subject of the second clause. In No. 2, there is no conjunction; instead, we find the word *who*, which replaces *and he*. This *who* is a **pronoun,** since it stands for *sailor* (precisely as *he* does in No. 1) and (like *he*) is the subject of the verb *saved*. But *who* is also a **connective,** since it joins the two parts of the sentence as *and* does in No. 1. Such words (which serve both as pronouns and as connectives) are called **relative pronouns.**

In No. 1, the two clauses are **coördinate.** Neither serves as a modifier, and each might stand alone as a complete sentence ("This is the sailor." "He saved my life"). The sentence is compound (§ 44). In No. 2, on the contrary, the clause *who saved my life* is a **subordinate** or **dependent clause,** for it is used as an adjective modifier of the noun *sailor*, which it limits by showing what particular sailor is meant. The sentence is **complex** (§ 44). The dependent clause (*who saved my life*) is connected with the main clause (*this is the sailor*) by the pronoun *who*, which refers to *sailor*.

144. Relative pronouns connect dependent clauses with main clauses by referring directly to a substantive in the main clause.[1]
This substantive is the antecedent of the relative (§ 12).

Thus in § 143 the noun *sailor* is the antecedent of *who*.

Relative means "carrying back." These pronouns are so called because they carry the mind back directly to the antecedent.

145. The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, and *what*. *That*, *as*, and *what* are not inflected.

Who and *which* are declined as follows in both the singular and the plural: —

Nominative	who	which
Possessive	whose	whose
Objective	whom	which

146. *As* may be used as a relative pronoun when *such* or *the same* stands in the main clause.

Such of you *as* have finished may go.
I have never seen such strawberries *as* these [are].
Use such powers *as* you have.
This color is the same *as* that [is].

Other relatives are also used after *the same*.

This is the same book *that* (or *which*) you were reading yesterday.
This is the same man *that* (or *whom*) I saw on the pier last Friday.

147. *Who* is either masculine or feminine; *which* and *what* are neuter; *that* and *as* are of all three genders.

All *who* heard, approved.
Here is the lad *whose* story interested you.
The first woman *whom* I saw was Mary.
He answered in such English *as* he could muster.
I saw nobody *that* I knew.
This is the road *that* leads to London.

For other uses of *as*, see §§ 194, 358, 389. For *but* in such sentences as "There was nobody *but* believed him," see § 360.

[1] Because of their use as connectives, relative pronouns are sometimes called **conjunctive pronouns**.

148. A relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

The sentences in § 147 illustrate the agreement of the relative with its antecedent in **gender.**

Since relative pronouns have the same form for both numbers and for all three persons, their **number and person** must be discovered, in each instance, by observing the number and person of the **antecedent.**

It is *I who am* wrong. [First person, singular number: antecedent, *I.*]

We who are his friends cannot believe this. [First person, plural number: antecedent, *we.*]

All *you who are* ready may go. [Second, plural: antecedent, *you.*]

Give help to *him who needs* it. [Third, singular: antecedent, *him.*]

Such as were willing were sent ahead. [Third person, plural number: antecedent, *such.*]

The *roads that lead* to the shore are sandy. [Third, plural: antecedent, *roads.*]

To determine the number and person of a relative pronoun is particularly necessary when it is the **subject of the clause,** for the form of the verb varies (as the examples show) according to the number and person of the subject (§ 220). Hence the rule for the agreement of a relative with its antecedent is of much practical importance.

149. The case of a relative pronoun has nothing to do with its antecedent, but depends on the construction of its own clause.

The servant *who* opened the door wore livery. [*Who* is in the nominative case, being the subject of *opened.*]

He discharged his servant, *who* immediately left town. [*Who* is in the nominative case, since it is the subject of *left*, although its antecedent (*servant*) is in the objective.]

The servant *whom* you discharged has returned. [*Whom* is in the objective case, since it is the direct object of *discharged.* The antecedent (*servant*) is, on the other hand, in the nominative, because it is the subject of *has returned.*]

Here is such money *as* I have. [*As* is in the objective case, being the object of *have.* The antecedent (*money*) is in the nominative.]

This is the same coat *that* I wore yesterday.

150. A relative pronoun in the objective is often omitted.

Here is the book *which* you wanted.	Here is the book you wanted.
The noise *that* I heard was the wind.	The noise I heard was the wind.
The man *whom* I met was a carpenter.	The man I met was a carpenter.

151. Certain questions of **gender** call for particular attention.

1. *Which*, rather than *who*, is commonly used in referring to the lower animals unless these are regarded as persons. This is true even when *he* or *she* is used of the same animals.

> This is the dog *which* I mentioned. Isn't *he* a fine fellow?
> We have one cow *which* we prize highly. *She* is a Jersey.

2. *Whose* may be used of any object that has life.

> This is the man *whose* watch was stolen.
> I have a cat *whose* name is Tabby.
> This is the tree *whose* leaves were destroyed. *It* is quite dead.

3. In the case of things without animal life, *of which* and *whose* are both common. The tendency is to prefer *of which* in prose, but *whose* is often used because of its more agreeable sound. In poetry, *whose* is especially frequent.

> A broad river, the name *of which* I have forgotten, barred the way.
> Jack was fishing with a bamboo rod, to the end *of which* he had tied a short piece of ordinary twine.
> She was gazing into the pool, *whose* calm surface reflected her features like a mirror. ["The surface *of which*" would not sound so well.]

DESCRIPTIVE AND RESTRICTIVE RELATIVES

152. The clause introduced by a relative pronoun is an **adjective clause**, since it serves as an adjective modifier of the antecedent (§ 143). There are two different ways in which the antecedent may be thus modified.

> 1. The Italian, *who wore a flower in his coat*, smiled at me.
> 2. The Italian *who wore a flower in his coat* smiled at me.

In the first sentence, the italicized relative clause serves simply to **describe** the Italian, not to identify him. The flower is a mere detail of the picture.

In the second sentence, the relative clause serves not merely to describe the Italian, but also to distinguish him from all others. The flower is mentioned as a means of **identification.** The relative clause confines or **restricts** the scope or range of the meaning expressed by the antecedent (*Italian*).[1]

153. A relative pronoun that serves merely to introduce a descriptive fact is called a descriptive relative.

A relative pronoun that introduces a clause confining or limiting the application of the antecedent is called a restrictive relative.

Thus in the first example in § 152, *who* is a descriptive relative; in the second, it is a restrictive relative.

154. Before a descriptive relative we pause in speaking, but not before a restrictive relative. Hence the rule: —

A descriptive relative is preceded by a comma; a restrictive relative is not.

Three sailors, *who* were loitering on the pier, sprang to the rescue.
A clumsy weapon, *which* I took for a blunderbuss, hung on the wall.
I told the news to the first man *that* (or *whom*) I met.
The coins *that* (or *which*) you showed me are doubloons.

NOTE. *Who*, *which*, and *that* are all used as restrictive relatives; but some writers prefer *that* to *which*, especially in the nominative case.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN *WHAT*

155. The relative pronoun *what* means *that which*, and has a **double construction**: — (1) the construction of the **omitted** or **implied antecedent** (*that*); (2) that of the **relative** (*which*).

What / *That which* } was said is true. [Here *what*, being equivalent to *that which*, serves as the subject both of *was said* and of *is*.]

Tom always remembers { *what* / *that which* } is said to him. [Here *what*, being equivalent to *that which*, serves as both the object of *remembers* and the subject of *is said*.]

[1] Clauses introduced by a restrictive relative are often called **determinative clauses.**

Tom always remembers { *what* / *that which* } he learns. [Here *what* serves both as the object of *remembers* and as the object of *learns.*]

In parsing *what*, mention both of its constructions.

NOTE. Another method of dealing with the relative *what* is to regard the whole clause (*what was said; what is said to him; what he learns*) as a **noun clause.** Thus the clause *what was said* in the first sentence would be the subject of *is;* in the second and third sentences, the clause would be the object of *remembers. What*, in the first sentence, would be parsed as the subject of *was said;* in the second, as the subject of *is said;* and in the third, as the object of *learns.* Neither view is incorrect, and each has its special advantages.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

156. The compound relative pronouns are formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to *who, which,* and *what.*

	Singular and Plural	
Nominative	whoever (whosoever)	whichever (whichsoever)
Possessive	whosever (whosesoever)	—— ——
Objective	whomever (whomsoever)	whichever (whichsoever)

Whatever (*whatsoever*) has no inflection. The nominative and the objective are alike, and the possessive is supplied by the phrase *of whatever* (*of whatsoever*). The phrase *of whichever* (*of whichsoever*) is used instead of *whosever* exactly as *of which* is used instead of *whose* (§ 151, 3).

157. The compound relative pronouns may include or imply their own antecedents and hence may have a double construction.

Whoever calls, *he* must be admitted. [Here *he*, the antecedent of *whoever*, is the subject of *must be admitted*, and *whoever* is the subject of *calls.*]

Whoever calls must be admitted. [Here the antecedent *he* is omitted, being implied in *whoever. Whoever* has therefore a double construction, being the subject of both *calls* and *must be admitted.*]

He shall have *whatever* he wishes.
I will do *whichever* you say.
Give me *whichever* is the more durable.

In such sentences, care should be taken to use *whoever* and *whomever* correctly. The nominative (*whoever*) is required when the relative is the subject of its own clause.

He asked *whoever* came.
He told the story to *whoever* would listen.
He asked *whomever* he knew.
He told the story to *whomever* he met.

158. The compound relatives are sometimes used without an antecedent expressed or implied.

Whoever deserts you, I will remain faithful.
Whomever it offends, I will speak the truth.
Whatever he attempts, he is sure to fail.
Whichever you choose, you will be disappointed.

NOTE. This construction is closely related to that explained in § 157. "Whoever deserts you, I will remain faithful," is practically equivalent to "Whoever deserts you, let him desert you! I will remain faithful." No antecedent, however, is felt by the speaker, and hence none need be supplied in parsing. Compare concessive clauses (§ 389).

159. *Which, what, whichever,* and *whatever* may be adjectives.

Use *what* (or *whatever*) powers you have.
Whichever plan you adopt, you have my best wishes.

160. A noun limited by the adjective *what, whichever,* or *whatever,* may have the same double construction that these relatives have when they are used as pronouns (§ 157). Thus,—

Take *whichever* pen is not in use. [Here *pen* is both the direct object of *take* and the subject of *is.*]

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

161. The interrogative pronouns are *who, which,* and *what.* They are used in asking questions.

Who is your neighbor?
Whom have you chosen?
From *whom* did you learn this?
Whose voice is that?
Which is correct?
What did he say?
What is lacking?
With *what* are you so delighted?

162. *Who* has a possessive *whose,* and an objective *whom; which* and *what* are not inflected. *Who* may be either masculine or feminine; *which* and *what* may be of any gender.

163. The **objective** *whom* often begins a question (as in the second example in § 161). *Who* should not be written for *whom*.

164. *Which* and *what* are used as **interrogative adjectives.**

Which street shall I take?
What village is this?

165. The interrogative adjective *what* may be used in a peculiar form of exclamatory sentence. Thus, —

What a cold night this is!
What courage he must have had!

What! is sometimes an interjection: as, — "*What!* do you really think so?"

166. In **parsing pronouns** the following models may be used: —

1. *He* was my earliest friend.

He is a personal pronoun of the third person. It is in the masculine gender, the singular number, and the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *was*.

2. A policeman *whom* I met showed me the house.

Whom is a relative pronoun of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, agreeing with its antecedent, *policeman*. It is in the objective case, being the direct object of the transitive verb *met*.

3. The corporal, *whose* name was Scott, came from Leith.

Whose is a relative pronoun of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, agreeing with its antecedent, *corporal*. It is in the possessive case, modifying the noun *name*.

4. *Whose* birthday do we celebrate in February?

Whose is an interrogative pronoun in the masculine or feminine gender, singular number, and possessive case, modifying the noun *birthday*.

5. He injured *himself* severely.

Himself is a compound personal pronoun of the third person, used reflexively. It is of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, agreeing with its antecedent, *he*. It is in the objective case, being the direct object of the transitive verb *injured*.

CHAPTER III

ADJECTIVES

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

167. **An adjective is a word which describes or limits a substantive. An adjective is said to belong to the substantive which it describes or limits.**

An adjective which describes is called a descriptive adjective; one which points out or designates is called a definitive or limiting adjective (§ 14).[1]

Most adjectives are **descriptive**: as, — round, cold, red.

> Even such a man, so *faint*, so *spiritless*,
> So *dull*, so *dead* in look, so *woe-begone*. — SHAKSPERE.

168. A proper noun used as an adjective, or an adjective derived from a proper noun, is called a **proper adjective** and usually begins with a capital letter.

EXAMPLES: a *Panama* hat; *California* oranges; a *Corliss* engine; Virginian, Spenserian, Icelandic, Miltonic, Turkish, Veronese. All other adjectives may be called **common.**

169. **Definitive or limiting adjectives** include: — (1) pronouns used as adjectives (as, *this* opportunity; *those* pictures; *either* table; *what* time?); (2) numeral adjectives (as, *two* stars; the *third* year); (3) the **articles**, *a* (or *an*) and *the*.

Pronouns used as adjectives (often called pronominal adjectives) have been studied under Pronouns, — demonstratives (§§ 131–134), indefinites (§§ 135–142), relatives (§§ 143–160), interrogatives (§§ 161–165).

Numeral adjectives will be treated, along with other numerals (nouns and adverbs), in §§ 202–205.

The articles will be treated in §§ 173–179.

[1] The same distinction extends to adjective phrases.

170. Adjectives may be classified, according to their position in the sentence, as **attributive, appositive,** and **predicate adjectives.**

1. An **attributive adjective** is closely attached[1] to its noun and regularly precedes it.

Yond Cassius has a *lean* and *hungry* look.

2. An **appositive adjective** is added to its noun to explain it, like a noun in apposition (§ 83, 5).

Noun in Apposition	Appositive Adjective
The castle, a *ruin*, stood on the edge of the cliff.	The castle, *ancient* and *ruinous*, stood on the edge of the cliff.
Bertram, the *ringleader*, refused to surrender.	Bertram, *undaunted*, refused to surrender.

3. A **predicate adjective** completes the meaning of the predicate verb, but describes or limits the subject.

171. Predicate adjectives are common after *is* (in its various forms) and other copulative verbs, particularly *become* and *seem* (§ 18).

The sea is *rough* to-day.
Burton soon became *cautious* in his judgments.
You seem *anxious* about your future.
The air grew *hot* and *sultry*.
Our first experiment proved *unsuccessful*.

Note. The construction of the predicate adjective is similar to that of the predicate nominative (§ 83, 2). Both are known as **complements**, because they complete the meaning of a verb.

172. After *look, sound, taste, smell, feel,* a predicate adjective is used to describe the subject. Thus, —

Your flowers look *thrifty*. [Not: look thriftily.]
Their voices sound *shrill*. [Not: sound shrilly.]
This apple tastes *sweet*. [Not: tastes sweetly.]
The air smells *good*. [Not: smells well.]
The patient feels *comfortable*. [Not: feels comfortably.]

For predicate adjectives after passive verbs, see § 457, 4.
For the use of an adjective as predicate objective, see § 101.

[1] Hence such an adjective is sometimes called **adherent**.

THE ARTICLES

173. The adjectives *a* (or *an*) and *the* are called articles.

1. The definite article *the* points out one or more particular objects as distinct from others of the same kind.

The children are in *the* next room.

2. The indefinite article *a* (or *an*) designates an object as merely one of a general class or kind.

Lend me *a* pencil. I have *an* orange.

174. *The* with a singular noun may indicate a **class** or **kind** of objects. In this use *the* is called the **generic article.**

The scholar is not necessarily a dryasdust.
The elephant is the largest of quadrupeds.

175. An adjective preceded by *the* may be used as a plural noun: — "*The brave* are honored."

176. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel or silent *h*; *a* before other words. Thus, — *an* owl; *an* honest man; *a* stone.

177. Special rules for *a* or *an* are the following: —

1. Before words beginning with the sound of *y* or *w*, the form *a*, not *an*, is used.

EXAMPLES: a union, a university, a yew, a ewe, a eulogy, a Utopian scheme, such a one. [This rule covers all words beginning with *eu* and many beginning with *u*. The initial sound is a consonant, not a vowel.]

2. Before words beginning with *h* and not accented on the first syllable, *an* is often used. Thus, we say —

a his'tory; BUT, *an* histor'ical novel.

178. With two or more connected nouns or adjectives the article should be repeated whenever clearness requires (cf. § 123).

I have consulted *the* secretary and *the* treasurer. ["The secretary and treasurer" would imply that the same person held both offices.]

In some towns there are separate schools for *the* boys and *the* girls; in others *the* boys and girls attend the same schools.

He waved *a* red and white flag.

He waved *a* red and *a* white flag.

179. *A* is often used distributively, in the sense of *each*.

The postman calls twice *a* day.
I paid five dollars *a* pair for my shoes.
The miners received sixteen dollars *an* ounce for their gold dust, and cleared about ten thousand dollars *a* man.

For the adverb *the*, which is quite distinct from the article in use and meaning, see § 194. For the preposition *a* (as in "He went *a*-fishing"), see § 343.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

180. In comparing objects with each other, we may use three different forms of the same adjective.

Thomas is *strong*.
William is *stronger* than Thomas.
Herbert is *strongest* of the three.

This inflection of adjectives is called **comparison**, and the three forms are called **degrees of comparison.**

181. The degrees of comparison indicate by their form in what degree of intensity the quality described by the adjective exists.

There are three degrees of comparison, — the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

1. The positive degree is the simplest form of the adjective, and has no special ending.

It merely describes the quality, without expressing or suggesting any comparison: — "Thomas is *strong*."

2. The comparative degree of an adjective is formed by adding the termination *er* to the positive degree.

It denotes that the quality exists in the object described in a higher degree than in some other object: — "William is *stronger* than Thomas."

3. The superlative degree is formed by adding *est* to the positive degree.

It denotes that the quality exists in the highest degree in the object described: — "Herbert is *strongest* of the three."

182. Rules of Spelling.

1. Adjectives ending in silent *e* drop this letter before the comparative ending *er* and the superlative ending *est*. Thus, — wise, wiser, wisest; pure, purer, purest.

2. Most adjectives ending in *y* change *y* to *i* before the endings *er* and *est*. Thus, — glossy, glossier, glossiest.

3. Adjectives having a short vowel and ending in a single consonant double this before the endings *er* and *est*. Thus, — dim, dimmer, dimmest; sad, sadder, saddest.

183. Many adjectives are compared by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the positive degree.

Many adjectives of two syllables and most adjectives of three or more syllables are so compared. Thus, — recent, more recent, most recent; terrible, more terrible, most terrible.

Some adjectives may be compared in either way.

Examples: intense, intenser, intensest; or intense, more intense, most intense. So also — profound, sublime, unkind, stupid, etc.

184. Several adjectives have irregular comparison.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bad (evil, ill)	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
——	further	furthest
good	better	best
late	later, latter	latest, last
well (in health)	better	——
little	less, lesser	least
much, many	more	most

Old has comparative *older* or *elder*, superlative *oldest* or *eldest*. *Elder* or *eldest* may be used with certain nouns of relationship, or in the phrases *the elder* and *the eldest*.

This is my *elder* brother. My brother is *older* than yours.
Jane was the *eldest* of six children. I shall wear my *oldest* clothes.

Elder is also used as a noun: as, — "You should respect your *elders*."

185. *Next* is a superlative of *nigh*. It is used only in the sense of "the very nearest."

I live in the *next* street.
The *next* time he comes, I shall refuse to see him.

186. A few superlatives end in *-most*. With these, one or both of the other degrees are commonly wanting.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
——	(former)	foremost
hind	hinder	hindmost
——	inner	inmost, innermost
(out, *adverb*)	outer	outmost, outermost
	(utter)	utmost, uttermost
(up, *adverb*)	upper	uppermost
——	——	endmost
——	nether	nethermost
top	——	topmost
——	——	furthermost
north	——	northmost
northern	(more northern)	northernmost
south	——	southmost
southern	(more southern)	southernmost
east, eastern	(more eastern)	easternmost
west, western	(more western)	westernmost

For adjectives incapable of comparison, see § 200. For special rules for the use of comparative and superlative, see §§ 198–201.

187. In **parsing** an adjective, tell whether it is descriptive or definitive (limiting), mention the substantive to which it belongs, and specify the degree of comparison. Thus, —

The apple hangs on the *topmost* bough.

Topmost is a descriptive adjective belonging to the noun *bough*. It is in the superlative degree: — positive, *top*; comparative wanting; superlative, *topmost*.

CHAPTER IV

ADVERBS AND NUMERALS

188. An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb (§ 19).

The storm ceased *suddenly*.
A *very* disastrous storm swept the coast.
The storm ceased *very* suddenly.

189. Adverbs are classified according to their meaning as: (1) adverbs of **manner**; (2) adverbs of **time**; (3) adverbs of **place**; (4) adverbs of **degree**.[1]

1. Adverbs of manner answer the question "How?" "In what way?" They modify verbs or adjectives, rarely adverbs. Most of them are formed from adjectives by adding *ly*.

Tom answered *courageously*.
The poor child looked *helplessly* about.
Softly and *silently* fell the snow.

2. Adverbs of time answer the question "When?" They usually modify verbs. Thus, —

The old castle is *now* a museum.
He was *recently* promoted.
I have been disturbed *lately*.
My friend arrives *to-day*.
Then came the thunder.
I have *already* rung the bell.

3. Adverbs of place answer the question "Where?" They usually modify verbs. Thus, —

Come *here*.
Yonder stands the culprit.
An old sailor came *forward*.

[1] The four classes are not absolute, for the same adverb may be used in different senses and thus belong to different classes. Sometimes, too, there is room for difference of opinion.

4. Adverbs of degree answer the question "To what degree or extent?" They modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Arthur is *rather* tall.	The task is *utterly* hopeless.
Father was *very much* pleased.	That is *not* possible.

190. Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives.

You have guessed *right*.	The horse was sold *cheap*.
How *fast* the tide ebbs!	Tired men sleep *sound*.

Other examples are: — wrong, straight, early, late, quick, hard, far, near, slow, high, low, loud, ill, well, deep, close, just, very, much, little.

NOTE. Under this head come certain adverbs of degree used to modify adjectives: — "His eyes were *dark* blue" (compare "*very* blue"); so "*light* yellow," "*deep* purple," "*icy* cold."

For adverbial phrases, see §§ 41, 42, 449.
For the adverbial objective, see § 111.

191. *Yes* and *no* are peculiar adverbs used in assenting and denying. Thus, — "Are you hungry?" "No."

NOTE. As now used, *yes* and *no* stand for complete sentences. Originally, however, they were modifiers, and hence they are still classed as adverbs.

192. *There* is often used merely to introduce a sentence in the inverted order (§ 7).

There rose a thick smoke from the volcano.

In this use, *there* is sometimes called an **expletive** (or "filler"). It is unemphatic, and has lost all its force as an adverb of place. Contrast "THERE [emphatic] stood an Indian under a tree" with "There [unemphatic expletive] stood an Indian under a tree."

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

193. Relative adverbs introduce subordinate clauses and are similar in their use to relative pronouns.

I know a farmhouse { in which / *where* } we can spend the night.

Where is an adverb of place, modifying *can spend*. But it also introduces the subordinate clause, as the relative pronoun *which* does. Hence *where* is called a **relative adverb.**

194. The principal relative adverbs are: — *where, whence, whither, wherever, when, whenever, while, as, how, why, before, after, till, until, since.*

Because of their similarity to conjunctions, these words are often called ~~conjunctive adverbs.~~

He had a fever *when* he was in Spain.
Work *while* it is day.
As the ship passed, we observed that her decks were crowded with Malays. [Time.]
Keep to the right, *as* the law directs. [Manner.]
You started *before* I was ready.
Wait *until* the car stops.
Since you came, it has rained constantly.

As and *since* in the sense of "because," and *while* in the sense of "although," are classed as conjunctions (§ 358).

The clauses introduced by relative adverbs may be either adjective or adverbial (§§ 49–50, 368–371).

NOTE. In "*The* more you waste, *the* sooner you will want" (and similar sentences) *the* is not an article, but an old case-form of the pronoun *that*, used as an adverb of degree. We may expand the sentence as follows: "*To what extent* you waste more, *to that extent* you will want sooner." Thus it appears that the first *the* has a relative force, and the second *the* a demonstrative force.

195. An interrogative adverb introduces a question.

Where, when, whence, whither, how, why, may be used as **interrogative adverbs.** Thus, —

Where are you going?
Why must you go?
How many ounces make a pound?

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

196. Adverbs have three degrees of comparison, — the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

1. Most adverbs are compared by means of *more* and *most*.

John came *promptly*. [Positive.]
Richard came *more promptly* than John. [Comparative.]
Henry came *most promptly* of all. [Superlative.]

2. A few adverbs are compared by means of the endings *er* and *est*. Thus, —

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
near	nearer	nearest
soon	sooner	soonest

Further examples are: — cheap, dear, early, fast, hard, high, long, loud, quick, slow, deep.

Some adverbs are compared in both ways. Thus, — *often, oftener* or *more often, oftenest* or *most often.*

197. Several adverbs have irregular comparison.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
far, forth	farther, further	farthest, furthest
ill, badly	worse	worst
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
well	better	best
late	later	latest, last
little	less	least
much	more	most

USE OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

198. The comparative degree, not the superlative, is used in comparing two persons or things.

The superlative is used in comparing one person or thing with two or more.

RIGHT: Mary is the *more agreeable* of the two.
Mary is the *most agreeable* of all the family.

WRONG: I like both Mary and Jane, but I am *fondest* of Mary.
I am studying Latin, history, and geometry, but I dislike the *latter*.

The same principle applies to adverbs.

John runs *faster* than Tom.
Which of you three can run *fastest*?

199. The superlative may be used merely for emphasis, without implying any definite comparison: as, — "My *dearest* Kate!"[1]

The superlative of emphasis is very common with *most.*

Most potent, grave, and *reverend* signiors. — SHAKSPERE.
Justice had been *most cruelly* defrauded. — WORDSWORTH.

200. Many adjectives and adverbs are, from their meaning, incapable of comparison. Such are: —

1. Adjectives expressing a quality as absolute or complete, and adverbs derived from such adjectives.

EXAMPLES: unique, universal, single, matchless, instantaneous, triangular, everlasting, infinite, mortal; uniquely, singly, eternally, mortally.

2. The adverbs *here, there, then, now, when,* and the like.

201. An adjective phrase may sometimes be compared by means of *more* and *most.*

I was never *more out of humor* [= more vexed].
I think your last suggestion *most in keeping* [= most appropriate].

NUMERALS — ADJECTIVES, NOUNS, AND ADVERBS

202. Words indicating number are called numerals. They are adjectives, nouns, or adverbs.

There are *seven* days in the week. [Adjective.]
Twelve make a *dozen.* [Noun.]
I have called *twice.* [Adverb.]

203. The chief classes of numerals are **cardinals** and **ordinals.**

1. Cardinal numeral adjectives (*one, two, three, four,* etc.) are used in counting, and answer the question "How many?"

I had to pay *three* dollars.
There were *forty-two* vessels in the fleet.

[1] When used for emphasis only, the superlative is sometimes called the **absolute superlative**; when used in actually comparing persons or things, it is sometimes called the **relative superlative.**

2. Ordinal numeral adjectives (*first, second, third,* etc.) denote the position or order of a person or thing in a series.

Carl plays the *second* violin.
Your friend is sitting in the *fifth* row.

204. All the cardinal and ordinal numerals may become nouns and may take a plural ending in some of their senses.

One is enough.
Four are missing.
The *nine* played an excellent game.
The men formed by *fours*.
Thousands perished by the way.
Eight is two *thirds* of twelve. [So regularly in **fractional parts.**]

NOTE. *Hundred, thousand, million* were originally nouns, but are now equally common as adjectives. Other numeral nouns are: — twain, couple, pair, brace, trio, quartette, quintette, foursome, dozen, score, century.

205. Certain numeral adjectives (*single, double, triple,* etc.) indicate how many times a thing is taken, or of how many like parts it consists.

A *double* row of policemen stood on guard.
A *fourfold* layer of chilled steel forms the door.

Some of these words may be used as adverbs.

The cabman charged *double*.
His fear increased *tenfold*.

Certain numeral adverbs and adverbial phrases indicate how many times an action takes place.

The only adverbs of this kind in ordinary use are *once* and *twice*. For larger numbers an adverbial phrase (*three times, four times,* etc.) is employed. *Thrice*, however, is still common in poetry and the solemn style.

206. In **parsing** an adverb, tell whether it is an adverb of manner, time, place, or degree, and mention the verb, adjective, or adverb which it modifies. Compare it, if comparison is possible. If it is a relative adverb, tell what clauses it connects.

CHAPTER V

VERBS

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

207. A verb is a word which can assert something (usually an action) concerning a person, place, or thing (§ 15).

Most verbs express **action**. Some, however, merely express **state** or **condition**. Thus, —

1. We *jumped* for joy.
   Rabbits *burrow* into the sides of hills.
   The fugitives *threw* themselves into the river.
2. While memory *lasts*, I can never forget you.
   This order *remained* in force for three months.
   This mountain *belongs* to the Appalachian range.

A verb-phrase is a group of words that is used as a verb (§ 16).

I *am writing*.
We *must go*.
You *will fall*.
He *has forgotten* me.
We *had failed*.
I *do see* him.

208. Certain verbs, when used to make verb-phrases, are called auxiliary verbs, because they help other verbs to express action or state of some particular kind (§ 17).

The auxiliary verbs are *is* (*are*, *was*, *were*, etc.), *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *shall*, *will*, *could*, *would*, *should*, *have*, *had*, *do*, *did*.

The auxiliary verb may be separated from the rest of the verb-phrase by other words: — "I *have* always *liked* him"; "I *shall* soon *send* for you", "Robert *was* completely *bewildered*"; "He *has* hardly ever *spoken* to me."

209. Verbs are either **transitive** or **intransitive** (§ 94).

Some verbs may be followed by a substantive denoting that which receives the action or is produced by it. These are called transitive verbs. All other verbs are called intransitive.

A substantive that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called its direct object.

In the following sentences, the first four verbs are **transitive** (with objects), the last five are **intransitive** (without objects): —

Lightning *shattered* the oak.	Look where he *stands* and *glares!*
Clouds *darkened* the sky.	The bankrupt *absconded.*
The orator *quoted* Tennyson.	The sound *died* away.
Coal *yields* gas.	The words *differ* in one letter.

210. A verb which is transitive in one of its senses may be intransitive in another.

Transitive (with Object)	Intransitive (without Object)
Boys *fly* kites.	Birds *fly.*
The pirates *sank* the ship.	The stone *sank.*
I *closed* my eyes.	School *closed* yesterday.
Tom *tore* his coat.	The cloth *tore* easily.

211. Many transitive verbs may be used absolutely, — that is, merely to express action without any indication of the direct object.

With Object Expressed	Used Absolutely
The horses *drank* water.	The horses *drank* from the brook.
The farmer *plows* his fields.	The farmer *plows* in the spring.
Charles *is drawing* a picture.	Charles *is drawing.*
Ellen *reads* good books.	She *reads* uncommonly well.

There is a sharp contrast between a transitive verb used absolutely and a real intransitive verb. To the former we can always add an object; with the latter no object is possible.

212. *Is* (in its various forms) and several other verbs may be used to frame sentences in which some word or words in the predicate describe or define the subject (§ 18).

Such verbs are called **copulative** or **linking** verbs.

Is in this use is often called the **copula** (or "link").

Time *is* money.	The current *is* sluggish.
Grant *was* a tireless worker.	This village *looks* prosperous.
Macbeth *became* a tyrant.	The consul's brow *grew* stern.
His swans always *prove* geese.	The queen *turned* pale.
Arnold *turned* traitor.	The chief *remained* silent.

In the first five examples, the copulative verb (the simple predicate) is followed by a predicate nominative (§ 83, 2); in the last five by a predicate adjective (§ 170, 3).

NOTE. The copulative, or linking, verbs are intransitive, since they take no object. All other intransitive verbs are often called verbs of **complete predication** or **complete verbs**. Sometimes, however, the linking verbs are regarded as a third class distinct from both transitive and intransitive verbs.

213. The verb *is* is not always a copula. It is sometimes emphatic and has the sense of *exist*.

I think. Therefore I *am*. [That is, I *exist*.]
Whatever *is*, is right. [The second *is* is the copula.]

Most of the other copulative verbs may be used in some sense in which they cease to be copulative.

Walnut trees *grow* slowly.	The wheel *turned* slowly.
Mr. Watson *grows* peaches.	He *turned* his head and *looked*.

INFLECTION OF VERBS—TENSE

214. Verbs have inflections of **tense, person** and **number,** and **mood.** They also have the distinction of **voice,** which is expressed by the help of verb-phrases.

Tense indicates time; **person** and **number** correspond with person and number in substantives; **mood** shows the manner in which the action is expressed; **voice** indicates whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

215. The tense of a verb indicates its time.

Verbs have forms of tense to indicate present, past, or future time

1. A verb in the present tense refers to present time.

2. A verb in the past tense refers to past time.[1]

3. A verb in the future tense refers to future time.

The present, the past, and the future are called simple tenses.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	FUTURE TENSE
He *lives* here.	He *lived* here.	He *will live* here.
The sun *shines*.	The sun *shone*.	The sun *will shine*.
I *know* him.	I *knew* him.	I *shall know* him.

[1] The past tense is often called the preterite.

FORMS OF THE PRESENT AND THE PAST

216. The **present** and the **past** tense have special forms of inflection. For the moment we will take the form which the verb has when its subject is the first personal pronoun *I*.

217. In the present tense the verb has its simplest form, without any inflectional ending.

I *like* it. I *dwell* in the wilderness.
I *hope* for the best. I *find* him amusing.

218. The **past tense** is formed in different ways.

Most verbs form the past tense by adding *ed, d,* or *t* to the present: as, — collect, collected; talk, talked; seize, seized.

Such verbs are called regular verbs; all others are called irregular.

When the ending is *t*, there is usually some further change in spelling or sound. Thus, — dwell, dwelt; send, sent; mean, meant. Examples of irregular verbs are: — sink, sank; bind, bound; cling, clung; set, set; bring, brought.

The forms of the irregular verbs must be learned by practice. A full list will be found on pages 209–217.

219. Many irregular verbs form the past tense by changing the vowel of the present, without the addition of an ending: as, — sink, sank; run, ran; choose, chose; freeze, froze.

Such verbs are often called **strong verbs**, and those that form the past tense by means of an ending (*ed*, *d*, or *t*) are often called **weak verbs**.

PERSON AND NUMBER — THE PERSONAL ENDINGS

220. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

Verbs, like substantives, have two numbers (singular and plural) and three persons (first, second, and third).

The singular number denotes a single person or thing. The plural number denotes more than one person or thing.

The first person denotes the speaker; the second person denotes the person spoken to; the third person denotes the person or thing spoken of.

221. The inflections of **person and number** in verbs may be seen by framing sentences with the personal pronouns as subjects. Thus, —

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I walk.	1. We walk.
2. Thou walk-*est*.	2. You walk.
3. He walk-*s* [old form, walk-*eth*].	3. They walk.

PAST TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I walked.	1. We walked.
2. Thou walked-*st*.	2. You walked.
3. He walked.	3. They walked.

Thus it is evident (1) that the **person** and **number** of a verb are usually shown by its subject only, but (2) that some verb-forms have special **endings** which denote person and number.

222. The endings by means of which a verb indicates person and number are called personal endings.

1. In the present tense a verb has two personal endings, *est* for the second person singular and *s* for the third person singular (old form *eth*).

The first person singular and all three persons of the plural are alike. The simplest form of the verb is used and no personal ending is added.

2. The past tense has but one personal ending, — *est* or *st* in the second person singular.[1]

The forms in *est* or *st* are confined to poetry and the solemn style. In ordinary language, the second person plural is used to address a single person.

The following table shows the **personal endings** of the present and the past tense : —

[1] The ending *ed* indicates tense, not person or number.

Personal Endings

Present Tense			Past Tense		
singular	plural		singular	plural	
1. [*no ending*]	1.	[*no ending*]	1. [*no ending*]	1.	[*no ending*]
2. -est, -st	2.		2. -est, -st	2.	
3. -s [*old*, -eth]	3.		3. [*no ending*]	3.	

Conjugation of the Present and the Past

223. The inflection of a verb is called its **conjugation** (§ 52). When we inflect a verb, we are said to **conjugate** it.

Conjugation of the Regular Verb *Walk*

Present Tense

singular	plural
1. I walk.	1. We walk.
2. Thou walkest.[1]	2. You walk.
3. He walks.	3. They walk.

Past Tense

1. I walked.	1. We walked.
2. Thou walkedst.	2. You walked.
3. He walked.	3. They walked.

Conjugation of the Irregular Verb *Find*

Present Tense

singular	plural
1. I find.	1. We find.
2. Thou findest.	2. You find.
3. He finds.	3. They find.

Past Tense

1. I found.	1. We found.
2. Thou foundest.	2. You found.
3. He found.	3. They found.

[1] The second person singular is often given as "*Thou walkest* or *You walk*," but it is simpler to regard *You walk* in this use as a plural in a singular sense.

Conjugation of the Copula

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Past Tense

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Special Rules of Person and Number

224. *It* has several peculiar uses.

1. *It* is used as the subject in many expressions like "It rains," "It snows," "It lightens," "It is cold," where no definite subject is thought of. In this use, the verb is said to be **impersonal.**

2. *It* often serves as grammatical subject merely to introduce the verb *is*, the real subject of the thought standing in the predicate. In this use *it* is called an **expletive** (or "filler").

It is he.
It is Christmas.
It was a tiresome ride.

In these examples, the subject of the thought (*he*, *Christmas*, *ride*) appears as a predicate nominative.

3. The antecedent of *it* is often a group of words.

Wearing tight shoes is foolish. *It* deforms the feet.

225. When the subject is compound (§ 38), the number of the verb is determined by the following rules: —

1. A compound subject with *and* usually takes a verb in the plural number.

My brother and sister *play* tennis.
The governor and the mayor *are* cousins.

2. A compound subject with *or* or *nor* takes a verb in the singular number if the substantives are singular.

Either my brother or my sister *is* sure to win.
Neither the governor nor the mayor *favors* this appointment.

3. A compound subject with *and* expressing but a single idea sometimes takes a verb in the singular number.

The sum and substance [= gist] of the matter *is* this.

NOTE. This construction in modern prose is for the most part confined to such idiomatic phrases as *end and aim* (= *purpose*), *the long and short of it*, etc. The poets, however, use it freely (as in Kipling's "The tumult and the shouting dies").

4. If the substantives connected by *or* or *nor* differ in number or person, the verb usually agrees with the nearer.

Either you or he *is* to blame.
Neither you nor he *is* an Austrian.
Neither John nor we *were* at home.
Neither the mayor nor the aldermen *favor* this law.

Such expressions are avoided by careful writers. The following sentences show how this may be done: —

Either you are to blame, or he is.
One of you two is to blame.
Neither of you is an Austrian.
He is not afraid; neither am I.

226. In such expressions as the following, the subject is not compound, and the verb agrees with its singular subject: —

The *governor* with his staff *is* present.
John, as well as Mary, *is* in London.

227. Nouns that are plural in form but singular in sense commonly take a verb in the singular number (§ 79).

Economics *is* an important study.
The gallows *has been abolished* in Massachusetts.

In some words usage varies. Thus, *pains*, in the sense of *care* or *effort*, is sometimes regarded as a singular and sometimes as a plural: — "Great *pains has* (or *have*) been taken about the matter."

228. **Collective nouns** take sometimes a singular and sometimes a plural verb. When the persons or things denoted are regarded as **individuals,** the plural should be used; when the collection is regarded as a **unit,** the singular.

1. The Senior Class *requests* the pleasure of your company. [Here the class is thought of **collectively,** acting as a unit.]
2. The Senior Class *are* unable to agree upon a president. [Here the speaker has in mind the **individuals** of whom the class is composed.]
3. The nation *welcomes* Prince Joseph. [The whole nation unites as a single individual to welcome a distinguished guest.]
4. The American nation *are* descended from every other nation on earth. [The separate qualities of the individuals who constitute the nation are in the speaker's mind.]

This rule is not absolute. Sometimes the distinction is unimportant, and the feeling of the moment often determines the number of the verb.

229. *A number* in the sense of "several" or "many" regularly takes the plural; *the number* takes the singular.

A number of sailors *were loitering* on the pier.
The number of tickets *is limited.*

230. *Half, part, portion,* and the like, take either the singular or the plural according to sense.

Half of a circle *is* a semicircle.
Half of the passengers *were* lost.
The tenth *part* of a dollar *is* a dime.
Part of these books *are* French.

231. A verb which has for its subject a **relative pronoun** is in the same person and number as the antecedent. For examples, see § 149. Errors are especially common in such sentences as,—

This is one of the strangest sights that ever *were* seen. [The antecedent of *that* is *sights* (NOT *one*); hence the relative (*that*) is plural, and accordingly the verb is plural (*were*, NOT *was*).]

Mr. Winn's oration was among the most eloquent that *have* [NOT *has*] been delivered in this state for many years.

This is one of the finest paintings there *are* in the hall. [For the omission of the relative, see § 150.]

THE FUTURE TENSE

232. The **future tense** is a verb-phrase consisting of the auxiliary verb *shall* or *will* followed by the infinitive without *to* (§ 30).

The following table shows the form of the **future** for each of the three persons in **assertions** and in **questions**: —

FUTURE TENSE

ASSERTIONS (DECLARATIVE)

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I shall fall.	1. We shall fall.
2. Thou wilt fall.	2. You will fall.
3. He will fall.	3. They will fall.

QUESTIONS (INTERROGATIVE)

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. Shall I fall?	1. Shall we fall?
2. Shalt thou fall?	2. Shall you fall?
3. Will he fall?	3. Will they fall?

233. Common errors are the use of *will* for *shall* (1) in the **first person** in **assertions** and **questions**, and (2) in the **second person** in **questions.**

In the following sentences the first person of the future tense is correctly formed: —

I shall [NOT *will*] drown.	Shall [NOT *will*] I drown?
I shall [NOT *will*] fail.	Shall [NOT *will*] I fail?
We shall [NOT *will*] sink.	Shall [NOT *will*] we sink?

The verb-phrases with *shall* express merely the action of the verb in **future** time. They do not indicate any **willingness** or **desire** on the part of the subject.

Contrast the following sentences, in which *I will* or *we will* is used: —

I will go with you.	We will allow you to enter.
I will not endure it.	We will have the truth.

Here the verb-phrases with *will* do not express the action of the verb in future time. They express the **present willingness** or **desire** or **determination** of the speaker to do something in the future.

Hence such verb-phrases with *will* in the first person are not forms of the future tense. They are special verb-phrases expressing willingness or desire.

234. In the first person *shall*, not *will*, is the auxiliary of the future tense in both assertions and questions. It denotes simple futurity, without expressing willingness, desire, or determination.

***Will* in the first person is used in promising, threatening, consenting, and expressing resolution.[1] It never denotes simple futurity.**

I. Simple Futurity (Future Tense)

I shall be eighteen years old in July. [Not: *will be.*]
Hurry, or *we shall miss* our train. [Not: *will miss.*]
We shall be glad to see him. [Not: *will be.*]
We shall never *succeed* in this undertaking. [Not: *will.*]

II. Promises, Threats, etc.

I will subscribe to your fund. [Promise.]
I will discharge you if you are late again. [Threat.]
We will permit you to go. [Consent.]
I will have obedience. [Resolution.]

I'll and *we'll* are contractions of *I will* and *we will* and can never stand for *I shall* and *we shall*: "*I'll* meet you at noon" [promise]. "*I'll* never consent" [resolution]. "*We'll* be revenged on you" [threat].

235. When willingness is expressed by an **adjective**, *I shall* is required; when by an **adverb**, *I will* is usual. Thus, — "I *shall be glad* to help you." "I *will gladly* help you."

236. In the second person *Shall you?* not *Will you?* is the proper form of the future tense in questions.

***Will you?* always denotes willingness, consent, or determination, and never simple futurity.**

[1] All these ideas may be included under a single term, **volition**.

Note that in questions in the second person, the auxiliary used is the same as that expected in the answer.

I. Future Tense (Simple Futurity)

Shall you *be* disappointed if he does not come? [I shall.]
Shall you *regret* his absence? [I shall.]
Shall you *go* by boat or by train? [I shall go by boat.]

II. Verb-Phrase denoting Willingness, etc.

Will you *write* often? [I will.]
Will you *allow* me to help you? [I will.]
Will you *be* so kind as to open the window? [I will.]

237. *Shall* in the **second** and **third persons** is not the sign of the **future** tense in declarative sentences. It is used in **commanding, promising, threatening,** and expressing **resolution,** the volition being that of the speaker.

Thou *shalt* not *kill*. [Command.]
You *shall have* the hat before Monday. [Promise.]
You *shall pay* for this insult! [Threat.]
She *shall* not *regret* her generosity. [Resolution.]

For *shall* and *will* in subordinate clauses, see pp. 98–100, 132, 134.

COMPLETE OR COMPOUND TENSES

238. **Completed action** is denoted by special **verb-phrases** made by prefixing to the **past participle** some form of the auxiliary verb *have*. These are called the **complete** or **compound tenses.**

There are three **complete** or **compound** tenses, — the **perfect** (or **present perfect**), the **pluperfect** (or **past perfect**), and the **future perfect.**

1. The perfect (or present perfect) tense denotes that the action of the verb is complete at the time of speaking. It is formed by prefixing *have* (*hast, has*) to the past participle.

I *have learned* my lesson. He *has convinced* me.

Note. With several verbs of motion the auxiliary *be* is sometimes used instead of *have:* as, — "My friends *are gone*" (or "*have gone*").

2. The pluperfect (or past perfect) tense denotes that the action was completed at some point in past time. It is formed by prefixing *had* (*hadst*) to the past participle.

Before night fell, I *had finished* the book.
When Blake *had spoken*, Allen rose to reply.

3. The future perfect tense denotes that the action will be completed at some point in future time. It is formed by prefixing the future tense of *have* (*shall have,* etc.) to the past participle.

Before I hear from you again, I *shall have landed* at Naples.

239. The forms of the past participle will be studied in § 325. Meanwhile, the following practical rule will serve: —

The past participle is that verb-form which is used after *I have.*

EXAMPLES: [I have] mended, tried, swept, forgotten, found, dug.

240. A verb-phrase made by prefixing *having* to the past participle is called the **perfect participle**; a verb-phrase made by prefixing *to have* to the past participle is called the **perfect** (or **past**) **infinitive.**

Having reached my destination, I stopped.
I am sorry *to have missed* you.

The perfect participle is also called the phrasal past participle.

241. Three forms of the verb are so important that they are called the **principal parts**: — (1) the first person singular of the present; (2) the first person singular of the past; (3) the past participle.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
(I) walk	(I) walked	walked
(I) think	(I) thought	thought
(I) see	(I) saw	seen
(I) come	(I) came	come
(I) make	(I) made	made

VOICE — ACTIVE AND PASSIVE

242. Voice is that property of verbs which indicates whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

There are two voices, active and passive.

1. A verb is in the active voice when it represents the subject as the doer of an act.

Mr. Hardy *builds* carriages.
Richard *shot* the bear.
Dr. Jackson *has cured* my father.
The crew *had deserted* the ship.

2. A verb is in the passive voice when it represents the subject as the receiver or the product of an action.

Carriages *are built* by Mr. Hardy.
The bear *was shot* by Richard.
My father *has been cured* by Dr. Jackson.
The ship *had been deserted* by the crew.

243. The passive voice of a verb is expressed by a verb-phrase made by prefixing some form of the copula (*is, was,* etc.) to the past participle.

In the passive of the **complete tenses,** the past participle *been* follows the proper form of the auxiliary *have* (§ 242, 2).

The passive of the **infinitive** is made by prefixing *to be* (perfect, *to have been*) to the past participle. Thus, —

PRESENT INFINITIVE PASSIVE : to be struck.
PERFECT INFINITIVE PASSIVE : to have been struck.

244. The following table gives the **conjugation** of the verb *strike* in the active and the passive of all six tenses : —

ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
PRESENT TENSE	
SINGULAR	
1. I strike.	1. I am struck.
2. Thou strikest.	2. Thou art struck.
3. He strikes.	3. He is struck.
PLURAL	
1. We strike.	1. We are struck.
2. You strike.	2. You are struck.
3. They strike.	3. They are struck.

Active Voice	Passive Voice

Past Tense

SINGULAR

1. I struck.	1. I was struck.
2. Thou struckest.	2. Thou wast struck.
3. He struck.	3. He was struck.

PLURAL

1. We struck.	1. We were struck.
2. You struck.	2. You were struck.
3. They struck.	3. They were struck.

Future Tense

SINGULAR

1. I shall strike.	1. I shall be struck.
2. Thou wilt strike.	2. Thou wilt be struck.
3. He will strike.	3. He will be struck.

PLURAL

1. We shall strike.	1. We shall be struck.
2. You will strike.	2. You will be struck.
3. They will strike.	3. They will be struck.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

SINGULAR

1. I have struck.	1. I have been struck.
2. Thou hast struck.	2. Thou hast been struck.
3. He has struck.	3. He has been struck.

PLURAL

1. We have struck.	1. We have been struck.
2. You have struck.	2. You have been struck.
3. They have struck.	3. They have been struck.

Active Voice	Passive Voice

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

SINGULAR

1. I had struck.	1. I had been struck.
2. Thou hadst struck.	2. Thou hadst been struck.
3. He had struck.	3. He had been struck.

PLURAL

1. We had struck.	1. We had been struck.
2. You had struck.	2. You had been struck.
3. They had struck.	3. They had been struck.

Future Perfect Tense

SINGULAR

1. I shall have struck.	1. I shall have been struck.
2. Thou wilt have struck.	2. Thou wilt have been struck.
3. He will have struck.	3. He will have been struck.

PLURAL

1. We shall have struck.	1. We shall have been struck.
2. You will have struck.	2. You will have been struck.
3. They will have struck.	3. They will have been struck.

Use of the Passive Voice

245. Any sentence of which the predicate is a transitive verb followed by an object, may be changed from the active to the passive form without affecting the sense.

The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive, and the subject of the active verb becomes in the passive an adverbial phrase modifying the predicate verb.

Active Voice	Passive Voice
My cat caught a bird.	A bird was caught by my cat.
Austin thanked Charles.	Charles was thanked by Austin.
The bullet penetrated a tree.	A tree was penetrated by the bullet.
Sargent painted that portrait.	That portrait was painted by Sargent.
The dog had saved the child.	The child had been saved by the dog.

246. **Intransitive verbs** are ordinarily used in the active voice only.

The bystanders *laughed.* The watchdogs *bark.* Snow *is falling.*

247. An intransitive verb followed by a preposition is often used in the passive, the object of the preposition becoming the subject of the verb.

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Everybody *laughed at* him.	He *was laughed at* by everybody.
He *has tampered with* this lock.	This lock *has been tampered with.*
The cart *ran over* me.	I *was run over* by the cart.

Note. In this idiom, the preposition is treated like an **ending** attached to the verb to make it transitive. In other words, *laugh at*, etc., are treated as compound verbs, and the object of the preposition is, in effect, the object of the compound. In the passive, this object becomes the subject and the preposition (now lacking an object) remains attached to the verb. The passive construction is well established, but not always graceful.

248. The passive of some verbs of *choosing*, *calling*, *naming*, *making*, and *thinking* may be followed by a **predicate nominative** (§ 83, 2).

Active Voice (predicate objective)	Passive Voice (predicate nominative)
We elected John *president.*	John was elected *president.*
The Roman people called the chief *friend.*	The chief was called *friend* by the Roman people.
They styled him *prefect.*	He was styled *prefect.*

Note. In the active voice, these verbs may take two objects referring to the same person or thing, — a **direct object** and a **predicate objective** (§ 100). In the passive, the direct object becomes the subject, and the predicate objective becomes a predicate nominative, agreeing with the subject (§ 83, 2).

Object of the Passive

249. When a verb takes both a **direct** and an **indirect object**, one of the two is often retained after the passive, the other becoming the subject. Thus, —

1. The **indirect object** is retained.

Active Voice	Passive Voice
My aunt gave *me* this watch.	This watch was given *me* by my aunt.
We allowed *them* free choice.	Free choice was allowed *them*.
He allowed each *speaker* an hour.	An hour was allowed each *speaker*.

2. The **direct object** is retained.

Active Voice	Passive Voice
We allowed them their *choice*.	They were allowed their *choice*.
He allowed each speaker an *hour*.	Each speaker was allowed an *hour*.
We told him the *truth*.	He was told the *truth*.

The direct object after a passive verb is often called the **retained object.**

Note. This construction, though common, is avoided by many careful writers, except in a few well-established idioms.

250. The verb *ask*, which may take two direct objects, — one denoting the person, the other the thing, — sometimes retains its second object in the passive construction (§ 99).

Active. We asked *him* his *opinion*.
Passive. He was asked his *opinion*.

PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES

251. In addition to the tense-forms already described, verbs have so-called **progressive forms.**

The progressive form of a tense represents the action of the verb as going on or continuing at the time referred to.

I *was eating* my dinner. [Compare: I *ate* my dinner.]
While I *was* quietly *reading* by my fireside, strange things *were taking* place in the square.

Both *ate* and *was eating* are in the past tense. But *ate* merely expresses a past action, whereas *was eating* describes this action as **continuing** or **in progress** in past time.

252. The progressive form is a verb-phrase made by prefixing to the present participle some form of the verb *to be*.

Progressive Conjugation

Active Voice

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am striking.	1. We are striking.
2. Thou art striking.	2. You are striking.
3. He is striking.	3. They are striking.

Past	I was striking, etc.
Future	I shall be striking, etc.
Perfect (Present Perfect)	I have been striking, etc.
Pluperfect (Past Perfect)	I had been striking, etc.
Future Perfect	I shall have been striking, etc.

Passive Voice

Present	I am being struck, etc.
Past	I was being struck, etc.

253. In the passive, the progressive forms are confined to the present and the past tense.

He *is being helped* by his brother. [Present.]
An accurate list *is being made*.
When I called, tea *was being served*. [Past.]
While the library *was being catalogued*, several volumes were misplaced.

254. In subordinate clauses, the verb *is* (in its various forms) with its subject is often omitted in progressive phrases.

While *waiting* for the train, I bought a newspaper. [That is, While I was waiting.]
I lost my way while *hunting*.
Though *listening* eagerly, he seemed indifferent.

In parsing, the omitted words should be supplied.

For such progressive forms as *is building* for *is being built*, see § 343.

EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES

255. **The present or the past of a verb in the active voice may be expressed with emphasis by means of a verb-phrase consisting of *do* or *did* and the infinitive without *to*.**

Such a phrase is called the emphatic form of the present or past tense.

"I do see you" and "I did go" differ from "I see you" and "I went" merely in emphasis. Hence *do see* is called the **emphatic form** of the present tense of *see*, and *did go* the emphatic form of the past tense of *go*.

256. In questions and in negative statements the emphatic forms are used without the effect of emphasis.

Did you go? I did not go.

MOOD OF VERBS

257. **Mood is that property of verbs which shows the manner in which the action or state is expressed.**

Compare the forms of the verb in the following sentences:—

Richard *is* quiet. If Richard *were* quiet, I might study.
Is Richard quiet? Richard, *be* quiet.

In the first and second sentences, the form *is* is used to assert or question a **fact**; in the third, the form *were* expresses a **condition** or **supposition** that is contrary to fact; in the fourth, the form *be* expresses a **command** or **request**.

The difference in form seen in the verb in these sentences is called a difference of **mood**.

258. **There are three moods, — the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive.**

1. The indicative is the mood of simple assertion or interrogation, but it is used in other constructions also.

2. The imperative is the mood of command or request.

3. The subjunctive mood is used in certain special constructions of wish, condition, and the like.

Thus, in the examples in § 257, *is* is in the **indicative**, *were* in the **subjunctive**, and *be* in the **imperative** mood.

I. INDICATIVE MOOD

259. The ordinary **forms** of the **indicative mood** in the active and the passive voice and in all six tenses, — present, past, future, perfect (or present perfect), pluperfect (or past perfect), and future perfect, — may be seen in the table on pages 80–82.

For the **progressive form** of the indicative, see § 252; for the **emphatic form,** see § 255.

260. The commonest **uses** of the **indicative mood** are in statements or questions as to matters of fact; but it may express almost any other form of thought. Thus, —

Time and tide *wait* for no man. [Assertion.]
How *goes* the world with you? [Interrogation.]
How it *rains!* [Exclamation.]
If the river *rises*, the dam will be swept away. [Supposition.]
I suspect that he *has absconded.* [Doubt.]
I hope that John *will come* soon. [Desire.]
Though Ellen *dislikes* algebra, she never shirks. [Concession.]
You *will report* for duty immediately. [Command.]
Will you *allow* me to use your knife? [Request.]

NOTE. The indicative and the subjunctive were originally quite distinct in form, and each had its own set of constructions. But, as our language has grown simpler in its structure, the forms of these two moods have become almost identical, and the uses of the indicative have been greatly multiplied at the expense of the subjunctive. Indeed, there is scarcely any variety of thought expressed by the subjunctive or the imperative for which the indicative cannot also be employed. It is therefore impossible to frame any satisfactory definition of the indicative. Its functions are too varied to be included in one general statement. The indicative is often described as the mood which asserts thought *as a fact*, and the subjunctive as the mood which expresses thought as supposition (or *as mere thought*). But the indicative, as well as the subjunctive, may express supposition, condition, doubt, desire, concession, etc. Hence the definitions in § 258 are as exact as the facts of the language allow. All the efforts of grammarians to devise more "accurate" definitions break down when tested by actual usage.

II. IMPERATIVE MOOD

261. The imperative is the mood of command or request.

Hurry!	*Shut* the door.	*Light* the lamp.
Lie down.	*Have* patience.	*Show* us the way.

The imperative has both voices, **active** and **passive**, but only one tense, — the **present**. It has both numbers, the **singular** and the **plural**, but only one person, the **second**. It has the same form for both the **singular** and the **plural**.

262. **1. The imperative active is the verb in its simplest form.**

For examples, see § 261.

The imperative of the verb *to be* is *be*. Thus, —

Be brave. *Be* careful. *Be* sure you are right.

2. The imperative passive is a verb-phrase consisting of *be* and a past participle.

Be trusted rather than feared.

263. **The subject of an imperative is seldom expressed unless it is emphatic:** — "You sit here"; "Go thou"; "Go you"; "Hear ye."

264. The **emphatic form** of the imperative consists of the imperative *do*, followed by the infinitive without *to*.

Do tell me what he said.

265. **Prohibition** (or **negative command**) is commonly expressed by means of the form with *do*.

Do not forget.
Do not make that mistake again.

In poetry and the solemn style prohibition is often expressed by the simple imperative with *not*.

Devise not evil against thy neighbor.

266. Commands are sometimes expressed in the indicative by means of *shall* or *will* (§ 237).

Thou *shalt* not *steal*.
You *will leave* the room immediately.

For such expressions as "Forward!" "Off with you!" and the like, see § 483.

For the imperative in conditions, see § 404.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Forms of the Subjunctive

267. The subjunctive mood is used in certain special constructions of wish, condition, and the like.

In older English the **subjunctive** forms were common in a variety of uses, as they still are in poetry and the solemn style. In ordinary prose, however, subjunctive forms that differ from the indicative are rare, and in conversation they are hardly ever heard, except in the case of the **copula** *be*.

Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I be.	1. If we be.
2. If thou be.	2. If you be.
3. If he be.	3. If they be.

Past Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I were.	1. If we were.
2. If thou wert.	2. If you were.
3. If he were.	3. If they were.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I have been.	1. If we have been.
2. If thou have been.	2. If you have been.
3. If he have been.	3. If they have been.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I had been.	1. If we had been.
2. If thou hadst been.	2. If you had been.
3. If he had been.	3. If they had been.

If is used in the paradigm because it is in clauses beginning with *if* that the subjunctive is commonest in modern English; but *if* is of course no part of the subjunctive inflection.

268. In other verbs, the **subjunctive active** has the same forms as the **indicative**, except in the **second** and **third persons singular** of the **present** and the **perfect**, which are like the **first** person: —

Present	Perfect
1. If I strike.	1. If I have struck.
2. If thou strike.	2. If thou have struck.
3. If he strike.	3. If he have struck.

In the **passive subjunctive**, the subjunctive forms of the copula (§ 267) are used as auxiliaries: — present, *If I be struck;* past, *If I were struck;* perfect, *If I have been struck;* pluperfect, *If I had been struck.* (See table, p. 222.)

269. **Progressive verb-phrases** in the subjunctive may be formed by means of the copula: — present, *If I be striking;* past, *If I were striking.* The present is rare; the past is common.

Uses of the Subjunctive

270. **The subjunctive is often used in wishes or prayers.**

Heaven *help* him!	Long *live* the king!
The saints *preserve* us!	O that I *had listened* to him!
God *bless* you!	O that we *were* rid of him!

In the first four examples, the wish is expressed in an independent sentence. In the last two, the construction is subordinate, — the *that*-clause being the object of an unexpressed "I wish" (§ 395).

271. The subjunctive *be* is often omitted when it may easily be supplied.

Peace [*be*] to his ashes! Honor [*be*] to his memory!

272. Wishes are often introduced by *may* or *would*.

May you never want!
Would that he *were* safe!
Would you *were* with us! [For *Would that*.]

May and *would* in such expressions were originally subjunctives; *would* stands for *I would*, that is, *I should wish*. *Want* in the first example is an infinitive without *to* (§ 303). For wishes expressed by the infinitive, see § 311.

273. **Exhortations** in the first person plural sometimes take the subjunctive in elevated or poetical style.

Hear we the king!

Exhortation is ordinarily expressed by *let us* followed by the infinitive without *to*: as, — "Let us have peace."

Let is a verb in the imperative mood, *us* is its object, and the infinitive (*have*) depends on *let*. In speaking, *let us* often becomes *let's*.

274. **The subjunctive is used after *though, although,* to express an admission or concession not as a fact but as a supposition.**

Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him.
Although he *were* to beg this on his knees, I should still refuse.

When the concession is stated as an admitted **fact,** the **indicative** is regular.

Although he *is* a foreigner, he speaks good English.

275. After *if* and *unless,* expressing **condition,** the **subjunctive** may be used in a variety of ways. See conditional sentences (pp. 128–129).

276. **Concession** or **condition** may be expressed by the **subjunctive** without *though* or *if,* the verb preceding the subject, which is sometimes omitted.

I. Concession

Try as we may, we cannot swim to that rock.
Be that as it may, my mind is made up.

II. Condition

Were I asked, I could tell all the facts. [If I were asked, etc.]
Had I known, I would have written to you. [If I had known, etc.]
I shall be twenty years old, *come* Tuesday. [If Tuesday come, etc.]
I will go, *rain* or *shine.* [If it rain, or if it shine, etc.]
Be he prince or *be* he pauper, every guest is welcome here.

277. After *as if* (*as though*), the **past subjunctive** is used.

He looks as if he *were* about to speak. [Not: as if he *was.*]

278. The **subjunctive** may express not what **is** or **was**, but what **would be** or **would have been**, the case.

It *were* safer to travel by day. [It would be safer, etc.]
I *had been* wiser had I refused. [I should have been wiser if I had.]

This construction is old-fashioned. Modern English commonly uses *should* (or *would*) *be*, *should* (or *would*) *have been*, instead. When no condition is expressed (as in the first example), the construction is sometimes called that of **ideal certainty**.

279. The **subjunctive** is occasionally used after *that*, *lest*, *before*, *until*, etc., in subordinate clauses referring to the future and commonly expressing **purpose** or **expectation.**[1]

Take heed that he *escape* not. [Purpose.]
Give him food lest he *perish*. [Purpose.]
Let us tarry until he *come*. [Expectation or anticipation.]

This construction is confined to poetry and the solemn or formal style. In ordinary language the indicative or a verb-phrase with *may* is used: as, — "Take heed that he *does* not *escape*"; "Give him food in order that he *may* not *perish*"; "Let us wait till he *comes*."

280. The **past subjunctive** *had* is common in *had rather* and similar phrases.

I *had rather* wait a day.
You *had better* leave the room.
He *had as lief* go as stay.

NOTE. *Had* in this construction is sometimes condemned as erroneous or inelegant; but the idiom is well-established. *Might better*, *would better*, and *would rather* may be used instead of *had better*, etc.; but *would better* is improper in the first person.

281. The subjunctive forms are often replaced by verb-phrases containing the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.

1. In wishes (§ 272).

May you *live* long and *prosper!*
May he never *repent* this act!
Ah, *could* I but *live* a hundred years!

[1] The subjunctive denoting expectation is often called the **anticipatory** subjunctive. For *shall* in a similar use, see § 297.

2. In concessions and conditions (§§ 274–275).

Though { I / you / he } *should fail*, there would still be hope.

If { I / you / he } *should fail*, all would be lost.

3. In sentences expressing not what **is** or **was**, but what **would be** or **would have been**, the case (§ 278).

I *should* / You *would* / He *would* } *write* to Charles if I knew his address.
It *would have been* better to telegraph.
We *should have been* sorry to miss your call.

4. In subordinate clauses introduced by *that*, *lest*, *before*, *until*, etc. (§ 279).

I will take care that nothing *may prevent*.

I took care that nothing { *might* / *should* } *prevent*.

The general determined to wait until fresh troops *should arrive*.

They strained every nerve to reach harbor before the storm *should break*.

POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES

USE OF MODAL AUXILIARIES

282. Several auxiliary verbs are used to form verb-phrases indicating ability, possibility, obligation, or necessity.

Such verb-phrases are called **potential phrases**, that is, "phrases of possibility."

The auxiliary verbs used in **potential phrases** are: — *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*. They are called **modal auxiliaries** and are followed by the infinitive without *to*.

We *may ask* a few questions.
I *can manage* a motor car.
You *must inquire* the way.
This town *must be* Hudson.
He *might give* you a chance.
I *could tell* if he *would permit*.
I *should enjoy* a sea-voyage.
We *should like* to meet your friend.

283. Potential phrases may be arranged in tables of conjugation. They are often called, collectively, the **potential mood.**

Active Voice

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I may strike.[1]	1. We may strike.
2. Thou mayst strike.	2. You may strike.
3. He may strike.	3. They may strike.

Past Tense

1. I might strike.[2]	1. We might strike.
2. Thou mightst strike.	2. You might strike.
3. He might strike.	3. They might strike.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

1. I may have struck.[3]	1. We may have struck.
2. Thou mayst have struck.	2. You may have struck.
3. He may have struck.	3. They may have struck.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

1. I might have struck.[4]	1. We might have struck.
2. Thou mightst have struck.	2. You might have struck.
3. He might have struck.	3. They might have struck.

Passive Voice

Present Tense

I may be struck, etc. We may be struck, etc.

Past Tense

I might be struck, etc. We might be struck, etc.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

I may have been struck, etc. We may have been struck, etc.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

I might have been struck, etc. We might have been struck, etc.

[1] So *I can strike*, etc.
[2] So *I could strike*, etc.
[3] So *I can have struck*, etc.
[4] So *I could have struck*, etc.

284. *Can* (past tense, *could*) regularly indicates **capability** or **possibility.**

John *can* ride a bicycle.
Harry *could* swim.

Can such things happen?
It *can*not be!

285. *May* (past tense, *might*) indicates (1) **permission,** (2) **possibility** or **doubtful intention,** (3) a **wish.**

1. You *may* borrow my pencil.
   I told him that he *might* join our party.
2. He *may* accept my offer.
   You *might* not like it.
3. *May* good fortune attend you!

286. In asking permission, the proper form is "*May* I?" not "*Can* I?" With negatives, however, *can* is more common than *may*, except in questions. Thus, —

QUESTION. *May* I (or *may n't* I) play ball this morning?
ANSWER. No, you *cannot;* but you *may* play this afternoon.

287. *Must* expresses **necessity** or **obligation.**

We *must* all die sometime.
You *must* wait for the train.

288. *Ought* denotes **obligation** or **propriety.** With the **present infinitive** *ought* expresses a present duty or obligation; with the **perfect** (or **past**) **infinitive,** a past duty or obligation. *Should* is often used in the same sense.

I *ought to write* that letter. [Present.]
You *ought* not *to object.* [Present.]
This roof *ought to be mended.* [Present.]
I *ought to have known* better. [Past.]
Your dog *ought* not *to have been unleashed.* [Past.]
You *should be* careful. [Present.]
The garden *should have been weeded* yesterday. [Past.]

Had should never be prefixed to *ought.*

You *ought* to stay at home. [NOT: You had ought.]
We *ought* n't to make so much noise. [NOT: We had n't ought.]
John ought to begin, *ought* n't he? [NOT: had n't he?]

289. *Should* and *ought* sometimes express **natural likelihood**, that is, what would certainly be expected in the case supposed.

If the train is on time, he { *should* / *ought to* } arrive at six.

290. *Would* in all three persons sometimes indicates **habitual action** in the past.

I (*he*) *would* gaze at the sea for hours at a time.

SPECIAL RULES FOR *SHOULD* AND *WOULD*

291. *Should* is the past tense of *shall*, and *would* is the past tense of *will*.[1] Hence the rules for *should* and *would* are similar to those for *shall* and *will* (§§ 232–237).

I. IN SIMPLE SENTENCES AND INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

292. Except in certain kinds of subordinate clauses, the distinction between *should* and *would* is practically the same as that between *shall* and *will*.

293. Common errors are the use of *I would* for *I should* in assertions, and that of *Would I?* and *Would you?* for *Should I?* and *Should you?* in questions.

The correct forms are shown in the following sentences.

I. *I should* (*we should*) and *I would* (*we would*) in **assertions**:—

1. *I should* break my neck if I fell.
2. *I should* hesitate to try this experiment.
3. *I should* n't wonder if he escaped.
4. *We should* regret any misunderstanding.
5. *I should* wish to examine the plans again before deciding.
6. *I should* be glad to accept any fair offer.
7. *I would* give five dollars for a ticket.
8. *I would* help you if I could.
9. *I would* never agree to such a proposition.
10. *We would* rather die than surrender. (See § 280.)
11. *We would* pay our bill to-day if we had the money.
12. *I would* gladly accept any fair offer.

[1] Accordingly such a phrase as "I should fall" is sometimes called **the past future**, and "I should have fallen" the **past future perfect** tense.

In the first six examples, *I* (or *we*) *should* is correct, because the auxiliary gives no suggestion of the speaker's will (or volition). In the last six, on the contrary, the speaker's willingness or desire is plainly expressed by the auxiliary, and *I* (or *we*) *would* is therefore used.

NOTE. In such sentences as the fifth, — "I should wish to examine the plans again before deciding," — *wish* expresses volition. Hence "I *would* wish" is incorrect, for it expresses volition twice and can mean only "I desire to wish." On the same principle we say "I should prefer," "I should be glad," etc.

Sometimes either *I would* or *I should* may be used, but with a difference in meaning. Thus, in the eighth example, "I should help you" might be substituted for "I would help you." This change, however, makes the remark sound less cordial and sympathetic; for *I should* (unlike *I would*) gives no hint of the speaker's desire to be of service.

II. *Should I* (or *we*)*?* in **questions**: —

1. *Should I* break my neck if I fell?
2. *Should I* be poisoned if I ate those berries?
3. *Should I* take cold without my overcoat?
4. *Should I* disturb you if I were to practise my music lesson?
5. *Should we* run aground if we missed the channel?

III. *Should you?* and *Would you?* in questions: —

1. *Should you* drown if the boat were to capsize? [Yes, *I should* drown, for I do not know how to swim.]
2. *Should you* despair if this plan were a failure? [No, *I should* not, for I have other resources.]
3. *Should you* think that ten yards of velvet would be enough? [Yes, *I should* think so.]
4. *Should you* be offended if I were to speak frankly? [No, *I should* not be offended.]
5. *Should you* wish to examine the plans again before deciding? [Yes, *I should* (see note under I, above).]
6. *Would you* wear a hat or a cap? [*I would* wear a cap if I were you.]
7. *Would you* study Greek if you were in my place? [Yes, *I would*.]
8. *Would you* accept my apology if it were offered? [Certainly, *I would* accept it gladly.]
9. *Would you* be so kind as to lend me your compasses? [Certainly *I would* lend them, if I had not lost them.]
10. *Would you* allow me to use your name as a reference? [*I would*.]

The choice between *should* and *would* in these sentences corresponds to the form expected in the answer (§ 236).

The chief occasions on which *Would you?* is correct are: — (1) in **asking advice** in a matter of doubt, and (2) in **asking consent or permission.** In examples 6 and 7 in § 293, III, the speaker asks advice; in 8, 9, and 10, he asks consent or permission.

294. Note that the proper forms are *I should like*, *Should I like?* and *Should you like?*

I should like to read that book.

Should I like to go to Rome? Indeed, *I should.*

Should you like to receive a copy of our catalogue? [*I should* like to receive one.]

NOTE. *Would* is very common in these phrases, even among writers of repute, but it is still contrary to the best usage. The reason for *should* is the same as in *I should wish* (§ 293, I, note).

I'd and *we'd* are contractions of *I would* and *we would.* Hence they can never stand for *I should* and *we should* (§ 234).

295. *Should* in the **second** and **third persons** may be used in simple declarative sentences and independent clauses to express the will of the speaker (§ 237).

Such waste is almost criminal. In my kitchen *it should* never be allowed. [That is: I would take care that it should not.]

If I had my way, *you should* be prosecuted. [That is: I would take care that you were prosecuted.]

If I were you, *she should* not regret her generosity. [Compare: *She shall* not regret it.]

II. *SHOULD* AND *WOULD* IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

296. In some kinds of **subordinate clauses,** the use of *should* and *would* differs considerably from that in simple sentences and principal clauses.

The following classes require attention: — (1) clauses of purpose or expectation (§ 297), (2) conditional and concessive clauses (§ 298), (3) clauses expressing volition not that of the subject (§ 299), (4) clauses stating something as an idea (§ 300), (5) indirect discourse (§ 425).

297. In subordinate clauses expressing the **purpose** or **expectation**[1] with which anything is done, *shall* and *should* are used in all three persons.

Carleton took great pains that { *I* / *you* / *they* } *should* understand the details of the treaty.

Scott { is / was } very careful that *nothing* { *shall* / *should* } interfere with his plans.

They took every precaution lest { *I* / *you* / *he* } *should* suspect the plot.

Anderson waited patiently until { *I* / *you* / *they* } *should* arrive with the horses.

We strained every nerve to reach the cave before the *storm should* break.

We will endeavor to complete the business before the *time* for adjournment *shall* arrive.

298. In **conditional** or **concessive** clauses expressing a **future supposed case** doubtfully, *shall* and *should* are used in **all three persons**; but *will* and *would* are proper when the subject is thought of as **wishing** or **consenting.**

1. What would happen if { *I* / *you* / *he* } *should* not obey this order?

2. If { *I* / *you* / *he* } *should* miss the steamer, our friends would be alarmed.

3. *Whoever* { *shall* / *should* } violate this law { shall / should } pay the penalty. [That is: If anybody shall violate, etc.]

4. Whenever { *I* / *you* / *he* } *shall* find an opportunity, let us try the experiment. [That is: If ever I shall find, etc.]

5. He promised to assist you whenever *you should* need help. [Whenever = if ever.]

6. Though { *we* / *you* / *they* } *should* fail, others would make the attempt. [Concession.]

[1] The *shall* or *should* of expectation is sometimes called **anticipatory.** See p. 92, footnote.

7. Though *Evans should* disappoint me, I should not lose confidence in him.

8. Vernon will do his part if $\left\{\begin{matrix} I \\ you \\ they \end{matrix}\right\}$ *will* coöperate with him.

9. If $\left\{\begin{matrix} I \\ you \\ he \end{matrix}\right\}$ *will* only make the effort, success is certain.

10. Edmund would reveal the secret if $\left\{\begin{matrix} I \\ you \\ they \end{matrix}\right\}$ *would* assist him in his search for the treasure.

11. If *we would* take pains, our parents would be satisfied.

12. *Whoever will* join us may be sure of a pleasant and profitable journey. [That is: If any one will join us, he may be sure, etc.]

When a **future supposed case** is admitted or conceded as **certain,** *will* may be used in the second and third persons to denote mere futurity.

Though $\left\{\begin{matrix} you \\ he \end{matrix}\right\}$ *will* certainly fail, $\left\{\begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{he} \end{matrix}\right\}$ may make the attempt.

Though the *ship will* not sink for some hours, let us take to the boats.

299. *Shall* and *should* are often used in the second and third persons in subordinate clauses to express volition which is not that of the subject.

Templeton insists that *you shall* accompany him.

We gave orders that the *gates should* be closed.

My wish is that $\left\{\begin{matrix} you \\ he \end{matrix}\right\}$ *should* remain at home.

The law prescribed when and to whom the *tax should* be paid.

300. When a clause with *that* states something, not as a **fact** but as an **idea** to be considered, *should* is the proper auxiliary in all three persons.

I am not surprised that you *should* find your lesson rather difficult. [That is: "When I consider the matter, I do not find the idea surprising." In "I am not surprised *that you find*," etc., the subordinate clause makes the statement **as a fact.**]

It is strange that Tom *should* neglect his swimming lessons. [Contrast: It is strange that Tom *neglects.*]

That Napoleon *should* have chafed at captivity is only natural. [Contrast: That Napoleon *chafed.*]

For *shall* and *will, should* and *would,* in **indirect discourse,** see § 425.

THE INFINITIVE

301. The **infinitive** is a **verb-form** that has some of the properties of a **noun** (§ 28). Its two-sided character comes out clearly when it is used as the subject of a sentence.

1. *To hope* is our only resource.
2. *To flatter* is not my custom.
3. *To choose* wisely was difficult.
4. *To scale* the wall was easy.

Each of these infinitives (*to hope, to flatter*, etc.) is a **noun**, for each is the subject of a sentence. An ordinary noun may be substituted with no change in meaning; as, — "*Hope* is our only resource"; "*Flattery* is not my custom."

But each of these infinitives is also a **verb**, — for (1) it expresses action; (2) it may be modified by an adverb, as in No. 3; (3) it takes an object if it is transitive, as in No. 4.

An infinitive (as the examples show) has regularly no subject[1] and therefore lacks both number and person. Hence it is not bound by the general rule for the agreement of a verb with its subject (§ 220). From this fact it derives its name, **infinitive**, which means "unrestricted" or "free from limitations."

302. The infinitive is a verb-form which partakes of the nature of a noun. It expresses action or state in the simplest possible way, without person or number.

It is commonly preceded by the preposition *to*, which is called the sign of the infinitive.

To is not, in strictness, a part of the infinitive, but it may be so regarded for convenience.

303. The infinitive often lacks *to*, especially in verb-phrases with the auxiliaries *will, shall, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, do, did.* For examples, see pp. 76, 86, 93–95.

304. The infinitive has two tenses, — the **present** and the **perfect** (or **past**).

1. The **present infinitive** is the verb in its simplest form, usually preceded by *to*: as, — *to live, to teach, to bind, to strike.*

[1] **For infinitive clauses**, in which the infinitive has a subject, see § 316.

2. The **perfect** (or **past**) **infinitive** is made by prefixing the infinitive of the auxiliary verb *have* to the past participle (§ 239): as, — *to have lived, to have taught, to have bound, to have struck.*

305. An infinitive may be modified by an **adverb**, an **adverbial phrase**, or an **adverbial clause.**

To write *legibly* is a valuable accomplishment.
To dive *among those weeds* would be folly. [Adverbial phrase.]
Theodore promises to come *when I send for him.* [Adverbial clause.]

No modifier should be inserted between *to* and the infinitive.

I beg you to inquire carefully. [Not: to carefully inquire.]
I expect always to be poor. [Not: to always be poor.]

306. The infinitive may take an object if its meaning allows.

I long to visit *Italy*. [*Italy* is the direct object of *to visit*.]
To give *him money* is useless. [*Money* is the direct object of *to give*, and *him* the indirect object.]

307. The infinitive is used (1) as a **noun**, (2) as an **adjective modifier** or **adverbial modifier**, (3) in the **infinitive clause.**

I. THE INFINITIVE AS A NOUN

308. An infinitive, with or without a complement or modifiers, may be used as the subject of a sentence, as a predicate nominative, or as an appositive.

To descend was extremely difficult. [Subject.]
To secure a seat was impossible.
To sing well requires practice.
His delight was *to travel.* [Predicate nominative.]
To decide was *to act.* [The first infinitive is the subject, and the second is a predicate nominative.]
Both alternatives, *to advance* and *to retreat*, seemed equally hazardous. [Apposition with the subject.]
My first plan, *to tunnel* under the wall, proved a failure.
He has but one aim in life, *to succeed.* [Apposition with the object.]
I have written with a definite purpose, *to dissuade* you.
I give you three choices, — *to buy*, *to lease*, or *to build.*

309. An infinitive in the predicate is often in apposition with the expletive subject *it*.

It was a pleasure *to see* him. [Instead of : To see him was a pleasure.]

In this use the infinitive, though grammatically in apposition with *it*, is really the subject of the thought (see § 224,2).

310. The infinitive may be used as the **object** of the prepositions *but*, *except*, *about*.

There was nothing to do but *walk* (or *to walk*).
He will do anything except *resign* (or except *to resign*).
We are about *to object*. [An idiom expressing futurity.]

311. The infinitive may be used as a **nominative of exclamation** (§ 83, 4).

To sleep! perchance *to dream!*
O *to have lived* in the brave days of old! [A wish.]

II. THE INFINITIVE AS A MODIFIER

312. An infinitive may be used as an adjective modifier of a noun or as an adverbial modifier of an adjective. In this use the infinitive is said to depend on the word which it modifies.

With Nouns (Adjective Modifier)	With Adjectives (Adverbial Modifier)
An opportunity *to advance* came.	The men are ready *to advance*.
Determination *to win* brings success.	John is eager *to win*.
Willingness *to oblige* makes friends.	I shall be glad *to oblige* you.
His anxiety *to please* us was laughable.	He is anxious *to please* everybody.

313. The infinitive without *to* may be used as an adjective modifier after the direct object of *see*, *hear*, *feel*, and some other verbs of like meaning.

I saw the policeman *arrest* him.
Hear the sea *roar!*
Can you feel the ground *tremble?*

In this use the infinitive is practically equivalent to a participle. Compare "I heard him *shout*" with "I heard him *shouting*." Hence the substantive may be regarded as an object, and the infinitive as its modifier. But the construction closely approaches that of an infinitive clause (§§ 315–316).

314. An infinitive may modify a verb (1) by completing its meaning, or (2) by expressing the purpose of the action.

I. Complementary Infinitive

The ship began *to roll.*	The officer had *to watch* him.
The rain continued *to fall.*	The prisoners tried *to escape.*
Every boy desires *to succeed.*	You promised *to come* to-night.

II. Infinitive of Purpose

I went to Paris *to study* art.	Elsa looked *to see* who came.
He opened his lips *to speak.*	He signalled *to stop* the train.
She turned away *to avoid* me.	Harold waited *to help* his aunt.

Both the **complementary infinitive** and the **infinitive of purpose** may be regarded as **adverbial phrases** modifying the verb.

Note. After some verbs the infinitive approaches the construction of a pure noun and is often regarded as an object. Thus, — "I desire *to see* you" (compare "I desire a *sight* of you"). It is simpler, however, to regard all such infinitives as complementary and to treat them as adverbial modifiers. For it is impossible to distinguish the construction of the infinitive after certain adjectives (as in "I am eager *to see* you") from its construction after such verbs as *wish* and *desire.*

III. THE INFINITIVE CLAUSE

315. A peculiar infinitive construction often replaces a *that*-clause as the object of a verb. Thus, —

I wished { *that he should go.* / *him to go.*

In the first sentence, the noun clause *that he should go* is the object of *wished;* in the second, this clause is replaced by *him to go,* but with no change in meaning. This expression consists of two parts: — (1) *him,* a pronoun in the objective case, replacing the subject *he;* and (2) an infinitive *to go,* replacing the predicate *should go.* Thus it is plain that *him to go* is also a noun clause, of which *him* is the subject, and *to go* the predicate. Such an expression is called an **infinitive clause.**

316. A kind of clause, consisting of a substantive in the objective case followed by an infinitive, may be used as the object of certain verbs.

Such clauses are called infinitive clauses, and the substantive is said to be the subject of the infinitive.

The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

Infinitive clauses are used (1) after verbs of *wishing*, *commanding*, *advising*, and the like, and (2) after some verbs of *believing*, *declaring*, and *perceiving*.[1] Thus, —

The colonel commanded *them to charge* [= that they should charge].
I believe *him to be trustworthy* [= that he is trustworthy].
The judge declared *him to be a dangerous man* [= that he was, etc.].

After a few verbs the infinitive without *to* is used in infinitive clauses.

Mr. Esmond bade his servant *pack* a portmanteau and *get* horses. [Compare: ordered his servant *to pack*, etc.]
What makes him *cry?* [Compare: What causes him *to cry?*]
I let him *sleep*. [Compare: I allowed him *to sleep*.]

NOTE. Ordinarily the infinitive cannot assert and hence has no subject (§ 301). The infinitive clause is, therefore, a peculiar exception, for *him to go* (§ 315) makes an assertion as clearly as *that he should go* does. That *him* is really the subject of *to go* and not the object of *wished* is manifest, for *I wished him* makes no sense. The object of *wished* is the whole clause (*him to go*).

317. A **predicate pronoun** after *to be* in an infinitive clause is in the **objective case**, agreeing with the subject of the infinitive.

Care should be taken not to confuse this construction with the **predicate nominative** (§ 83, 2).

PREDICATE PRONOUN AFTER *TO BE*	PREDICATE NOMINATIVE
I believed it to be *her*.	I believed that it was *she*.
We know the author to be *him*.	We know that the author is *he*.
	The author is known to be *he*.
He thought Richard to be *me*.	He thought that Richard was *I*.
	Richard was thought to be *I*.

[1] After verbs of *wishing*, etc., they express purpose (§ 391); after verbs of *believing*, etc., they are in indirect discourse (§ 418).

Note the case of the **relatives** and of the **predicate pronouns** in the following sentences: —

A boy *whom* I thought to be honest deceived me. [*Whom* is the subject of the infinitive *to be* and is therefore in the objective case.]

A boy *who*, I thought, was honest deceived me. [*Who* is the subject of *was* and is therefore nominative. *I thought* is parenthetical (§ 466).]

A boy *whom* I believe to be *him* just passed me.

A boy *who*, I believe, was *he*, just passed me.

318. An infinitive clause may be the object of the preposition *for*. Thus, —

I wrote for *him to come*. [The clause *him to come* is the object of *for*; *him* is the subject of *to come*.]

319. An infinitive clause with *for* may be used as a subject, as a predicate nominative, or as the object of a preposition.

For us to delay would be fatal to your enterprise. [Compare: *Our delay* would be fatal.]

Our best plan is *for the boat to shoot the rapids*. [Predicate nominative agreeing with the subject *plan*.]

I see no way out of the difficulty except *for them to offer an apology*. [Compare: except the *offer* of an apology on their part.]

PARTICIPLES

320. Certain words unite in themselves some of the properties of **adjectives** with some of the properties of **verbs**. Such words are called **participles** (§ 32).

321. The participle is a verb-form which has no subject, but which partakes of the nature of an adjective and expresses action or state in such a way as to describe or limit a substantive.

Who *thundering* comes on blackest steed? — Byron.

Clinging to the horns of the altar, voiceless she stood. — De Quincey.

Deserted, *surrounded*, *outnumbered*, and with everything at stake, he did not even deign to stand on the defensive. — Macaulay.

Shrouded in such baleful vapors, the genius of Burns was never seen in clear azure splendor, *enlightening* the world. — Carlyle.

FORMS OF PARTICIPLES

322. Verbs have three participles, — the **present**, the **past**, and the **perfect**.

323. The **present participle** ends in *-ing*. It usually describes one action as taking place at the same time with another.

Tom came *sauntering* up the path.
The beggar shambled down the steps, *grumbling*.
Reaching for the flower, I lost my balance.

324. The present participle often refers to time preceding that denoted by the predicate verb.

Rising from his chair, he bowed. [That is, when he had risen.]

325. The past participle is always associated with the idea of past time or completed action.

1. The past participle of a regular (or weak) verb has the same form as the past tense.[1]

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
I *mend* chairs.	I *mended* the chairs.	The chairs are *mended*.
I *sweep* the rooms.	I *swept* the rooms.	The rooms are *swept*.
I *seek* treasure.	I *sought* treasure.	Treasure is *sought*.
I *lose* money.	I *lost* money.	The money is *lost*.

2. The past participle of many irregular verbs shows a change from the vowel of the present tense. Most of these had originally the ending *en* (*n*) in the past participle, but this ending has been lost in many verbs.[2]

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
He *speaks*.	He *spoke*.	(He has) *spoken*.
He *draws*.	He *drew*.	(He has) *drawn*.
He *sings*.	He *sang*.	(He has) *sung*.

326. The **perfect participle** (or **phrasal past participle**) is made by prefixing *having* (passive, *having been*) to the past participle.

Active : *Having mended* the watch, I sent it to the owner.
Passive : *Having been mended*, the watch was as good as new.

[1] The only exceptions are trifling differences in spelling. [2] See pp. 209–215.

327. The present participle is used in forming the progressive verb-phrases (§§ 251–254) : — as, " He *was running.*"

The past participle is used in forming the complete tenses (§§ 238–240) and the passive voice (§ 243).

CONSTRUCTIONS OF PARTICIPLES

328. Since the participle has adjective properties, its constructions are in the main like those of adjectives.

329. A participle is said to belong to the substantive which it describes or limits.

Rupert, *missing* his companion, stepped to the door. [The present participle *missing* belongs to the subject *Rupert.*]

Rising, she opened the window. [*Rising* belongs to *she.*]

I heard the rain *falling.* [*Falling* belongs to the object *rain.*]

Tom's arm, *broken* by the blow, hung useless. [The past participle *broken* belongs to the subject *arm.*]

Having climbed the hill with great difficulty, I stopped to rest. [The perfect participle *having climbed* belongs to the subject *I.*]

330. A participle should not be used without some substantive to which it may belong.

RIGHT : *Entering* the room, we saw a strange sight. [The participle *entering* belongs to the pronoun *we.*]

WRONG : *Entering* the room, a strange sight was seen. [Since there is no substantive to which *entering* can belong, it has no construction.]

Apparent exceptions are *concerning*, *considering*, *pending*, *generally speaking*, etc. The first three may be classed as prepositions (§ 347), the last as an independent participle.

We fought every day, and, *generally speaking*, twice every day. — DE QUINCEY.

331. A participle may be modified by an adverb, an adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause.

Smiling *brightly*, she extended her hand. [Adverb.]

He leaped forward, shrieking *with all his might.* [Adverbial phrase.]

Laughing *until he cried*, he sank into a chair. [Adverbial clause.]

332. A participle may take an object if its meaning allows.

I found the old man mending his *net*.

Giving *me* a friendly *nod*, he passed on. [Here *nod* is the direct object of *giving*, and *me* is the indirect object.]

The participle, with its modifiers and such other words as are attached to it, is sometimes called a **participial phrase.**

333. A participle may be used as a pure adjective.

A *grinning* boy confronted me.
A *battered* hat hung on the peg.
He is a *finished* speaker.
Kate had a *broken* doll.
He was struck by a *spent* ball.
I have found the *stolen* goods.

334. The past participle is often used as a **predicate adjective** expressing state or condition.

This construction is easily confused with the passive of verbs. The distinction may be seen in the following examples: —

The rain began to fall heavily, and every time a gust of wind struck us we *were drenched* by it.

When the rain at last ceased, we were *drenched* [that is, *very wet*].

In the first sentence, *were drenched* is the past passive of the verb *drench* (compare the active "every time a gust of wind struck us, it *drenched* us"). In the second, the participle *drenched* expresses mere condition, and is therefore a predicate adjective. The distinction, however, is not always sharp, and in cases of doubt the phrase may be taken together as a passive verb.

Nominative Absolute

335. A substantive, with a participle attached, is often used to make an adverbial phrase.

The wind failing,
On the failure of the wind, } we lowered the sail.
When the wind failed,

Here *the wind failing* is equivalent to an adverbial phrase (*on the failure of the wind*) or an adverbial clause (*when the wind failed*). It defines the time of the action.

336. A substantive, with a participle, may express the cause, time, or circumstances of an action. This is called the absolute construction. The substantive is in the nominative case and is called a nominative absolute.

My knife slipping, I cut myself severely. [The phrase *my knife slipping* is equivalent to *because my knife slipped:* it expresses **cause.**]

Two days having elapsed, we again set forward. [The phrase in italics is equivalent to *when two days had elapsed:* it expresses **time.**]

Evenings he read aloud, *his wife knitting by his side*. [The phrase expresses one of the **circumstances** that attended the reading.]

This done, proceed to business. [The phrase *this done* is equivalent to the clause *since* (or *when*) *this is done*, and indicates **cause** or **time.**]

337. The participle *being* is sometimes omitted in the absolute construction.

His clothing in shreds, he presented a sorry sight.

VERBAL NOUNS IN *-ING* (PARTICIPIAL NOUNS)

338. English has a large and important class of **verbal nouns** that end in *-ing*, and that serve as the **names of actions.**

These are identical in form with **present participles,** for which they are frequently mistaken. The distinction, however, is clear, for the present participle is never used as the name of an action. Hence no word in *-ing* that is a subject or an object, or stands in any other noun construction, can be a participle.

While I was *travelling* in Mexico, I met with an accident. [Participle.]
Travelling broadens the mind. [Verbal noun, used as subject.]
He enjoys *travelling*. [Verbal noun, used as object of a verb.]
He spends his time in *travelling*. [Verbal noun, object of a preposition.]

That nouns in *-ing* are real nouns may be proved by putting ordinary nouns in their place.

Travelling broadens the mind.	*Travel* broadens the mind.
Talking is useless.	*Talk* is useless.
He is afraid of *falling*.	He is afraid of a *fall*.
She understands *cooking*.	She understands *cookery*.
Lying is cowardly.	A *falsehood* is cowardly.

339. From nearly every English verb there may be formed a verbal noun in *-ing*. Such nouns in *-ing* have the form of present participles, but the construction of nouns.

They are often called **participial nouns.**

340. Verbal nouns in *-ing* have some properties of the **verb.**

1. Verbal nouns in *-ing* may take a direct or an indirect object if their meaning allows.

Digging *gold* seems to the uninitiated like finding buried *treasure*.
Lending *him money* is useless. [Here the noun *lending*, which is the simple subject of the sentence, takes both a direct object (*money*) and an indirect object (*him*), precisely as the verb *lend* might do.]

2. A verbal noun in *-ing* may (like a verb) take an adverbial modifier or may (like a noun) be modified by an adjective.

Speaking *extemporaneously* is good practice. [Adverb.]
Extemporaneous speaking is good practice. [Adjective.]

3. To the verbal nouns *being* and *having*, past participles may be attached, so as to give the effect of voice and tense.

After *being instructed* in my duties, I was ordered to wait on the king.
There were grave doubts expressed as to his *having seen* the mastodon.
After *having been treated* so harshly, I had no wish to return.

Such expressions are **verbal noun-phrases.**

341. Verbal nouns in *-ing* are similar in some of their constructions to infinitives used as nouns (§ 308).

Infinitive as Noun	Verbal Noun in *-ing*
To swim was difficult.	*Swimming* was difficult.
My business is *to make* shoes.	My business is *making* shoes.
To see is *to believe*.	*Seeing* is *believing*.

Nouns in *-ing* are sometimes called **infinitives in -ing** or **gerunds.**

342. A noun in *-ing* may be used as an **adjective,** or as the adjective element in a **compound noun** (§ 60).

The *sleeping* car was wrecked.
Tom has plenty of *spending* money.

343. When a verbal noun in *-ing* is preceded by an article or any other adjective, it cannot take an object.

Shooting song-birds
The shooting *of* song-birds } is forbidden.

Eating confectionery constantly
Constant eating *of* confectionery } is bad for the teeth.

My business is { driving wells.
the driving *of* wells.

Observe that, in each instance, the **object** (*song-birds*, *confectionery*, *wells*) is replaced by a **prepositional phrase** when an article or other adjective precedes the verbal noun.

NOTE. In such expressions as "I went a-fishing," *a* is a shortened form of the preposition *on*, and *fishing* is a verbal noun used as its object. When *a* is omitted, we have "I went fishing," "The house is building," and the like, in which the word in *-ing* seems to be a participle, but is really the object of the omitted *a* (= *on*).

344. The possessive case of a noun or pronoun may be used to limit a verbal noun in *-ing*.

I was sure of *its* being he. [NOT: *it*.]
I heard of *Allen's* being elected. [NOT: *Allen*.]

NOTE. Many writers use the objective instead of the possessive when the possessive does not sound well: as, — "The very thought of her *house* being so cold made her shiver." In such cases, however, some other construction is preferable: as, — "The very thought of her cold house" or "that her house was so cold."

345. Models for parsing verbs are given with the Exercises (pp. 185–190).

NOTE. The **modal** forms (indicative, subjunctive, imperative) are **predicative** (that is, used as predicates), the **non-modal** forms, whether substantive (infinitive, verbal in *-ing*) or adjective (participle), are **non-predicative** (except for the infinitive in the infinitive clause).

CHAPTER VI

PREPOSITIONS

346. A preposition is a word placed before a substantive to show its relation to some other word in the sentence. The substantive which follows a preposition is called its object and is in the objective case.

A phrase consisting of a preposition and its object, with or without other words, is called a prepositional phrase. Such a phrase may be either adjective or adverbial.

On the floor lay a heap *of* nuts.
From morning *till* night he remained *at* his post.
The fire destroyed everything *except* a few articles *of* furniture.

In the first example, *of nuts* is an adjective phrase modifying the noun *heap*, and *on the floor* is an adverbial phrase modifying the verb *lay*; in the second, the predicate verb *remained* is modified by three adverbial phrases.

347. The following list includes most of the prepositions: —

aboard
about
above
according to
across
after
against
along, along with
amid, amidst
among, amongst
apart from
around
as for, as to
at
athwart
barring
because of
before
behind
below
beneath
beside, besides
between, betwixt
beyond
but (= except)
by
by dint of
by means of
by reason of
by virtue of
by way of
concerning
considering
despite
down
during
ere
except, excepting
for
for the sake of
from
from among
from between
from under
in
in accordance with
in addition to
in case of
in compliance with
in consequence of
in consideration of
in front of
in lieu of
in opposition to
in place of
in preference to
in regard to
in spite of
inside (inside of)
instead of
into
notwithstanding
of, off

on	round	underneath
on account of	round about	until, till
out of	save, saving	up
outside (outside of)	since	upon
over	through	with
over against	throughout	with reference to
past	to, unto	with regard to
pending	touching	with respect to
regarding	toward, towards	within
respecting	under	without

Such expressions as *by means of*, *in accordance with*, *in spite of*, etc., are really phrases, but may be regarded as **compound prepositions** to distinguish them from the **simple** prepositions (*by*, *from*, etc.).

Per is confined to the strictly commercial style except in such expressions as *perforce*, *per cent*, *per annum*. For *a* in *abed*, *asleep*, etc., see § 343, note.

348. A preposition may stand at the end of a sentence or clause.

Whom did you ask *for?* [Compare: *For whom* did you ask?]
The box *which* it came *in* has been destroyed.

NOTE. This order, though informal, is common in the best authors; but, if carelessly used, it may result in awkwardness of style.

349. Care is needed when **pronouns** are **objects of prepositions.**

He has been very friendly to you and *me*. [NOT: you and *I*.]
He will divide the reward between you and *him*.
Whom are you waiting for? } [NOT: *Who*.]
Whom were you speaking to? }

350. Several words are used either as **adverbs** or as **prepositions.**

I fell *down*. [Adverb.]	I fell *down* the steps. [Preposition.]
Stand *by!*	He stood *by* the window.
A big dog ran *behind*.	A dog ran *behind* the carriage.
Keep *off!*	Keep *off* the grass.

Other examples are: — aboard, above, after, along, before, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, ere, in, inside, on, outside, past, round, since, under, up, within, without.

For words used either as prepositions or as conjunctions, see pp. 116–117.

CHAPTER VII

CONJUNCTIONS

351. Conjunctions connect words or groups of words. They are either coördinate or subordinate.

1. A coördinate (or coördinating) conjunction connects words or groups of words that are independent of each other.

1. Hay *and* grain are sold here.
2. Will you take tea *or* coffee?
3. He was pale *but* undaunted.
4. The messenger replied courteously *but* firmly.
5. The troops embarked rapidly *but* without confusion.
6. Noon came, *and* the task was still unfinished.
7. We must hide here until night falls *and* the street is deserted.

In examples 1–4, the conjunction (*and*, *or*, *but*) connects single words in the same construction (subjects, objects, predicate adjectives, adverbs). In the fifth sentence, *but* connects an adverb with an adverbial phrase (both being modifiers of the verb *embarked*). In the sixth, *and* joins the two coördinate clauses of a compound sentence (§ 44). In the seventh, *and* joins two coördinate clauses which, taken together, make up the subordinate clause *until . . . deserted;* this may therefore be called a compound subordinate clause (§ 474).

2. A subordinate (or subordinating) conjunction connects a subordinate clause with the clause on which it depends.

Harmon did not quail, *though* he saw the danger.
Take this seat, *if* you prefer.
I hesitated *because* I remembered your warning.

352. The chief **coördinate conjunctions** are:—

and (both . . . and)	moreover
not only . . . but also	therefore
or (either . . . or)	then
nor (neither . . . nor)	yet
but	still
for	nevertheless
however	notwithstanding

353. *Then* is an adverb when it denotes time, a conjunction when it denotes consequence or the like.

Then the boat glided up to the pier. [Time.]
Men are imperfect creatures: we must not, *then*, expect them to be angels. [Consequence.]

354. *Yet* and *still* are adverbs when they express time or degree, conjunctions when they connect.

We have not started *yet*. [Time.]
It is *still* raining. [Time.]
This hatchet is dull, but that is duller *still*. [Degree.]
I miss him, *yet* I am glad he went. [Conjunction.]
I like dogs; *still* I do not care to own one. [Conjunction.]

355. *For* and *notwithstanding* may be either prepositions or conjunctions.

Prepositions	Conjunctions
I am waiting *for* you.	We must go, *for* it is late.
Jane is coming, *notwithstanding* the storm.	It is a hard storm. She will come, *notwithstanding*.

Note. *For* is sometimes classified as a subordinate conjunction, but the fact that it may be used to begin an independent sentence (even when such a sentence opens a paragraph) justifies its inclusion among the coördinates.

356. The chief **subordinate conjunctions** are: —

although, though	if	that
as	lest	unless
as if (as though)	since (= because)	whereas
because	than	whether (whether . . . or)

A few phrases may be regarded as **compound conjunctions** to distinguish them from **simple** conjunctions like *though* or *as*. Such are: — *in order that*, *so that*, *provided that*, *in case that*, *but that*, *as if*, *as though*, *even if*. *Provided* and *in case* (without *that*) may also be used as conjunctions: as, — "I will go, *provided* it does n't rain."

357. The subordinate conjunction *that* is often omitted when it may readily be supplied: — "He said [that] he was starving."

358. *As* and *since* in the sense of *because*, and *while* in the sense of *though*, are conjunctions.

When denoting **time**, *as* is an adverb, *while* is a noun or an adverb, and *since* is an adverb or a preposition.

As (or *since*) you will not listen, I will say no more. [Conjunction.]
As we crossed the bridge, I looked down at the stream. [Adverb.]
Ten years have passed *since* my uncle went to sea. [Adverb.]
The house has been empty *since* Christmas. [Preposition.]

359. Conjunctions used in pairs are called **correlative conjunctions.** The chief correlatives are: —

both . . . and	whether . . . or
not only . . . but also	though (although) . . . yet (still)
either . . . or	since . . . therefore
neither . . . nor	if . . . then

Both lions *and* wolves are carnivorous.
Either brass *or* copper will do.
Neither Keats *nor* Shelley lived to be old.
He asked me *whether* I was an Austrian *or* a Russian.
Though the roads were bad, *yet* he managed to reach Utica.
Although he has wronged me, *still* I cannot believe he is my enemy.
Since four is the square of two, *therefore* two is the square root of four.
If Allen's testimony is true, *then* Gilbert's must be false.

360. *But* is used as a subordinate conjunction in the sense of *but that* or *unless*.

There is no doubt *but that* they are murderers. — SHELLEY.
Your uncle must not know *but* [= *but that*] you are dead. — SHAKSPERE.
Ne'er may I look on day *but* [= *unless*] she tells to your highness simple truth. — SHAKSPERE. [This use is obsolete.]
There was nobody *but* loved her. [*He*, subject of *loved*, is omitted. In such cases *but* is sometimes regarded as a relative pronoun.]

361. *Notwithstanding* is used as a subordinate conjunction in the sense of *though*.

I shall go, *notwithstanding* the road is said to be impassable.

362. **Relative adverbs** are similar in their use to conjunctions, and are often called **conjunctive adverbs** (§§ 193–194).

CHAPTER VIII

INTERJECTIONS

363. An interjection is a cry or other exclamatory sound expressing surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other emotion or feeling.

EXAMPLES: O (*or* oh), ah, hullo (holloa, halloo), bah, pshaw, fie, whew, tut-tut, st (*often spelled* hist), ha, aha, ha ha, ho, hey, hum, hem, heigh-ho (heigh-o), alas, bravo, lo.

Among interjections are included calls to animals (like "whoa!") and imitations of sounds such as "mew!" "cock-a-doodle-doo!" "ding dong!" "swish!" "tu-whit-tu-whoo!"

364. Interjections usually have no grammatical connection with the phrases or sentences in which they stand. Hence they are counted among the "independent elements" of a sentence (§ 465).

Sometimes, however, a substantive is connected with an interjection by means of a preposition: — "*O for* a camera!" "*Alas for* my hopes!" Such expressions are often regarded as elliptical sentences, as if "O for a camera!" stood for "O, I wish for a camera!" But it is better to treat them as exclamatory phrases.[1] Other exclamatory phrases are "Dear me!" "Goodness gracious!" "O my!" and the like.

365. Almost any part of speech may be used as an exclamation.

Nonsense! I do not believe it.	Forward!
Fire!	On!
I! not a bit of it!	Away!
Halt!	*Back*, villains!
Good! I like that!	But ——!

Such words are often called interjections, but it is better to describe them as nouns, adjectives, etc., used in exclamation. Thus *nonsense!* and *fire!* are nouns in the exclamatory nominative; *I!* is a pronoun in the same construction; *halt!* is a verb in the imperative; *good!* is an adjective; *forward!* is an adverb; *but!* is a conjunction.

[1] Compare the exclamatory sentence (§ 4) and the exclamatory nominative (§ 83, 4).

CHAPTER IX

CLAUSES AS PARTS OF SPEECH

366. A clause is a group of words that forms part of a sentence and that contains a subject and a predicate.

A clause used as a part of speech is called a subordinate clause (§ 46).

367. According to their use as parts of speech, subordinate clauses are **adjective, adverbial,** or **noun clauses.**

368. A subordinate clause that modifies a substantive is called an adjective clause (§ 47).

Able men
Men *of ability* } can always find employment.
Men *who show ability*

Treeless spots
Spots *without trees* } were plainly visible.
Spots *where no trees grew*

In each of these groups, a noun (*men*, *spots*) is modified (1) by an adjective, (2) by an adjective phrase, (3) by an adjective clause. The sense remains unchanged.

369. Adjective clauses may be introduced (1) by **relative pronouns,** (2) by **relative adverbs** of place (*where, whence, whither,* etc.) or time (*when, while, before, after, since, till, until*).

370. A subordinate clause that serves as an adverbial modifier is called an adverbial clause (§ 47).

Jack spoke { *thoughtlessly.* [Adverb as a modifier.]
without thinking. [Adverbial phrase.]
before he thought. [Adverbial clause.]

The schoolhouse stands { *there.*
at the crossroads.
where the roads meet.

We pay our rent { *monthly.*
on the first of every month.
when the first of the month comes.

371. Adverbial clauses may be introduced (1) by **relative adverbs** (*when, where, before*, etc.); (2) by **subordinate conjunctions** (*if, though, because*, etc.); (3) by **relative** or **interrogative pronouns.**

372. Adverbial clauses oftenest modify verbs, but they are also common as modifiers of adjectives and adverbs.

Angry *because he had failed*, he abandoned the undertaking. [The clause modifies *angry*.]

I am uncertain *which road I should take*. [The clause modifies *uncertain*.]

Farther *than eye could see* extended the waste of tossing waters. [The clause modifies *farther*.]

373. An adverbial clause with *that* may be used to modify verbs and adjectives.

He rejoiced *that* [= *because*] *the victory was won.*
I am glad *that you are coming.*
He was positive *that no harm had been done.*

374. A subordinate clause that is used as a noun is called a noun (or substantive) clause (§ 47).

Victory
To win } was out of the question.
That we should win

The merchant feared { *loss.* / *to lose.* / *that he might lose money.*

I expect { *success.* / *to succeed.* / *that I shall succeed.*

In each of these groups a noun is replaced (1) by an infinitive, (2) by a noun clause. In the first example, the noun clause is the subject; in the others, it is the object of a verb.

375. Noun clauses are used in all of the more important constructions of nouns: — (1) as **subject,** (2) as **direct object** of a transitive verb, (3) **in apposition,** (4) as **predicate nominative.**

That Milton was spared has often caused surprise. [Subject.]

Brutus said *that Cæsar was a tyrant.* [Object of *said*.]

The traveller inquired *where he could find the inn.* [Object.]

He asked me *what my name was.* [Second object of *asked.*]

One fact is undoubted, — *that the state of America has been kept in continual agitation.* — BURKE. [Apposition with *fact.*]

The old saying is *that misery loves company.* [Predicate nominative.]

376. Noun clauses may be introduced (1) by the subordinate conjunctions *that*, *whether* (*whether . . . or*), and *if* (in the sense of *whether*); (2) by the interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*; (3) by the interrogative adverbs *where*, *whence*, *whither*, *how*, *why*, *when* (§ 195).

377. Noun clauses are common as objects of verbs (1) of *commanding*, *desiring*, etc. (§ 395); (2) of *telling*, *thinking*, etc. (§§ 418–419); (3) of *asking*, *doubting*, etc. (§ 427).

Object clauses frequently omit *that* (§ 357). For the infinitive clause replacing a *that*-clause as object, see §§ 315–316.

378. A noun clause may be used as the **retained object** of a passive verb (§ 249).

ACTIVE VOICE (CLAUSE AS OBJECT)	PASSIVE VOICE (RETAINED OBJECT)
Charles told us *that the ice was thin.*	We were told *that the ice was thin.*
They asked me *whether* (or *if*) *I liked tennis.*	I was asked *whether I liked tennis.*

379. A noun clause may be the object of a preposition.

I see no reason for a lawsuit except *that both parties are stubborn.* [Compare: except the *stubbornness* of both.]

I could say nothing but [= except] *that I was sorry.*

She could see me from *where she stood.*

There is a dispute as to *which of the miners first staked out the claim.*

380. Noun clauses with *that* are common in the predicate when the expletive *it* is the grammatical subject (§ 224, 2).

It was plain *that war was at hand.*

It must be admitted *that there were many extenuating circumstances.*

It was by slow degrees *that Fox became a brilliant and powerful debater.*

In such sentences the real subject of the thought is the clause. This, however, is grammatically in apposition with *it*, as if one said "*It* (that war was at hand) was plain."

CHAPTER X

THE MEANINGS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

381. Subordinate clauses may express a variety of meanings, most of which come under the following heads: — (1) **place** or **time,** (2) **cause,** (3) **concession,** (4) **purpose,** (5) **result,** (6) **condition,** (7) **comparison,**[1] (8) **indirect discourse,** (9) **indirect question.**

The general meaning of the clause is usually indicated by the word which introduces it.

I. CLAUSES OF PLACE AND TIME

382. An adjective or an adverbial clause may express place or time.

I. Adjective Clauses

The house *where the robbery occurred* is No. 14.
The bridge *over which we rode* is in ruins.
There is a point *beyond which you cannot go.*
The day *when* (or *on which*) *I was to sail* arrived at last.
The day *before you came* was rainy.
His terror *while it thundered* was pitiable.

II. Adverbial Clauses

Remain *where I can see you.*
Whithersoever I go, fear dogs my steps.
Whenever the bell rings, you must take down the receiver.
Esmond heard the chimes *as he sat in his own chamber.*
This old lady can read *while she knits.*
I have lived in Cairo *since my father died.*

383. Adjective clauses of place and time may be introduced by relative pronouns; both adjective and adverbial clauses of place and time may be introduced by relative adverbs (see examples above).

[1] Including clauses of **manner** and **degree** (§§ 414–416).

II–III. CAUSAL AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

384. An adverbial clause may express cause or concession.

385. Causal clauses are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *because, since, as, inasmuch as,* and sometimes *that.*

I came home *because I was tired.*
As the day was clear, we decided to climb the mountain.
Since you will not relent, you must take the consequences.
Tom was delighted *that his friend was safe.*

Since is a preposition or an adverb when it denotes **time**; *as* is an adverb when it denotes **time**. Both *since* and *as* are conjunctions when they express **cause**. For *as* used as a relative pronoun, see § 146.

386. A **concessive clause** is usually introduced by a subordinate conjunction, *though, although,* or *even if.* It **admits** (or concedes) some fact or supposition **in spite of which** the assertion in the main clause is made.

Although I do not like his manners, I respect his character.
We won the game, *though we expected to lose.*
Even if he were a king, he would not be satisfied.
Though he should read books forever, he would not grow wise.

387. The main clause, when it follows the concessive clause, may be emphasized by means of *yet, still, nevertheless.*

Although the task was heavy, *yet* his courage never failed. [*Although* and *yet* are correlative conjunctions (§ 359).]

388. For the indicative and the subjunctive in concessive clauses, see § 274; for *should* and *would,* see § 298.

389. A concessive clause may be introduced by the conjunction *as,* or by a relative pronoun or a relative adverb.

Weak as I am, I will make the effort.
Whatever you say,
Whichever argument you present, } he will carry his point.
However much you object,

390. Concession is sometimes expressed by a subjunctive clause without a conjunction to introduce it (§ 276).

IV–V. CLAUSES OF PURPOSE AND OF RESULT

391. A subordinate clause may express purpose or result.

I. Clauses of Purpose

These men died *that we might live.*
I will take care *that you are not harmed.*
We threw over our ballast, *so that the airship might clear the trees.*
All our arrangements have been made with the utmost precision, *in order that the ship may be launched promptly and without accident.*

II. Clauses of Result

He has recovered his strength, *so that he can now work.*
Quentin started *so* suddenly *that he almost dropped his weapon.*
Their minds were *so* much embittered *that they hated each other.*
You make *such* a noise *that I cannot hear the music.*

392. Clauses of purpose may be introduced by the subordinate conjunction *that* or by a phrase containing it (*so that*, *in order that*, *to the end that*, etc.). Negative clauses of purpose may be introduced by *that . . . not* or by *lest*. For *lest*, see § 279.

393. Clauses of result may be introduced by the phrase *so that*, consisting of the adverb *so* and the subordinate conjunction *that*; or by *that* alone, especially when *so*, *such*, or some similar word stands in the main clause.

394. A clause of **purpose** or of **result** may be either an **adverbial clause** (as in § 391) or a **substantive clause.**

I intend *that you shall be elected.* [Object.]
My intention is *that you shall be appointed.* [Predicate nominative.]
The result is *that he is bankrupt.* [Predicate nominative.]
His exertions had this effect, *that the vote was unanimous.* [Appositive.]

395. A substantive clause of purpose is often used as the **object** of a verb of *commanding*, *desiring*, or the like.

The general ordered *that the fort should be blown up.*
The prisoner begged *that his fetters might be struck off.*

For clauses of purpose or expectation with *shall* or *should*, see § 297.

396. Purpose may be expressed by the infinitive with *to* or *in order to*, and result by the infinitive with *to* or *as to*.

He left home *to* [or *in order to*] *become a missionary*. [Purpose.]
He was kind enough *to help me*. [Result. Compare: He was so kind *that he helped me*.]
He was so kind *as to help me*. [Result.]

Negative result is often expressed by the adverb *too* and the infinitive:— "Iron is *too* heavy *to float*." [Compare: "Iron is so heavy *that it does not float*."]

397. Purpose may be expressed by an **infinitive clause** (§ 316).

The teacher intended *us to finish the book*. [Compare: The teacher intended *that we should finish the book*.]

VI. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

398. A clause that expresses a condition introduced by *if*, or by some equivalent word or phrase, is called a conditional clause. A sentence that contains a conditional clause is called a conditional sentence.[1]

If it rains, we shall remain at home.
I shall attend the convention *if I am in town*.
I will take this book, *if you please*.

399. A **conditional sentence** regularly consists of two parts:—

(1) A subordinate (adverbial) clause, commonly introduced by *if*, and expressing the **condition.**

(2) A main clause expressing the **conclusion,** that is, the statement which is true in case the condition expressed in the *if*-clause is true.

Thus, in the first example in § 398, the **conditional clause** or **condition** is *if it rains;* the **conclusional clause** or **conclusion** is *we shall remain at home.*

Either the condition or the conclusion may come first.

The **conclusion** of a conditional sentence may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.

If you go to Philadelphia, *where shall you stay?* [Interrogative.]
Sit here, if you wish. [Imperative.]
If you win the prize, *how glad I shall be!* [Exclamatory.]

[1] Since such a sentence is complex, it is often called a **conditional complex.**

400. A conditional clause may be introduced by *provided (that), granted that, supposing, on condition that.*

I will permit you to go, *on condition that* you come home early.
You may have the money, *provided* you will put it in the bank.
Supposing (or *suppose*) it rains, what shall we do?

Suppose is really an imperative and *supposing* a participle, the clause being the object.

401. A **negative condition** is introduced by *if not* or *unless.*

I will wait for him, *if* you do *not* object.
Unless you overcome that habit, you will be ruined.

402. **Double** (or **alternative**) **conditions** may be introduced by *whether . . . or.*

Whether he goes *or* stays, he must pay a week's board. [Compare: *If* he goes *or if* he stays, etc.]
He is determined to buy that car, *whether* you approve *or* not. [That is: *if* you approve *or if* you do not approve.]

403. A conditional clause may be introduced by *whoever, whenever,* or some similar compound (§§ 157, 194).

Whoever sins, is punished. [*If anybody* sins, he is punished.]
Whomever you ask, you will be refused. [*If* you shall ask *anybody*.]
He will come *whenever* [*if ever*] he is called.

NOTE. The *if*-clause is sometimes used as an exclamation, with the conclusion omitted: — "If I only had a rifle!"

404. A condition may be expressed by means of an assertion, a question, an imperative, an infinitive, or the absolute construction (§ 336).

We take the receiver from the hook; the operator answers. [Compare: If we take the receiver from the hook, etc.]
Do you refuse? Then you must take the consequences.
Press that button — the bell will ring.
To hear her laugh, you would think she could never be sad.
We shall sail on Monday, weather permitting.

NOTE. In such cases, there is no subordinate conditional clause. Thus, in the first example, we have two independent coördinate clauses, making a compound sentence (§ 44). All clauses (independent or dependent) that express a condition are sometimes called **assumptive.**

FORMS OF CONDITIONS

405. Conditional sentences show great variety of form, but it is easy to classify them according to the **time** of the supposed case and the **degree of doubt** that the speaker expresses.

406. Conditions may be **present, past,** or **future.**

Present and Past Conditions

407. Present and past conditions may be either (1) **non-committal (neutral)** or (2) **contrary to fact.**

1. A condition is **non-committal** (or **neutral**) when it implies nothing as to the truth or falsity of the case supposed.

If James is angry, I am sorry. [Perhaps James is angry, perhaps not.]

2. A condition is **contrary to fact** when it implies that the supposed case is not or was not true.

If James were angry, I should be sorry. [James is *not* angry.]

408. In a **non-committal present condition,** the *if*-clause takes the present indicative; in a **non-committal past condition,** the past, the perfect (present perfect), or the pluperfect (past perfect). The conclusion may be in any form that the sense allows.

I. Present Condition, Non-committal (or Neutral)

If this pebble is a diamond, { it is valuable. / guard it carefully. / you have made a great discovery. / you will get a large sum for it. / why are you so careless of it? / what a prize it is!

II. Past Condition, Non-committal (or Neutral)

If that pebble was a diamond, { it was valuable. / why did you throw it away? / go back and look for it.

If Tom has apologized, { he has done his duty. / you ought to excuse him. / forgive him.

If John had reached home before we started, he must have hurried.

In each of these examples, the speaker declines to commit himself as to the truth of the supposed case. Perhaps the pebble was a diamond, perhaps not; Tom may or may not have apologized; whether or not John had reached home, we cannot tell.

409. In a **condition contrary to fact,** the *if*-clause takes the past subjunctive when the condition refers to present time, the pluperfect subjunctive when it refers to past time.

The conclusion usually takes *should* or *would* (§ 281, 3), sometimes *might, could,* or *ought.*

If John *were* here, I *should recognize* him. [Present condition, present conclusion.]

If John *were* here, I *should have recognized* him before this. [Present condition, past conclusion.]

If I *had offended* him, I *should have regretted* it. [Past condition, past conclusion.]

If I *had* then *offended* him, I *should regret* it now. [Past condition, present conclusion.]

If he *were* present, he *might* (or *could*) *object.* [Present condition, present conclusion.]

If he *had been* present, he *might* (or *could*) *have objected.* [Past condition, past conclusion.]

In each of these sentences, the speaker distinctly implies that the supposed case (or **condition**) *is* (or *was*) *not a fact.* It follows, of course, that the **conclusion** is not a fact: —John is *not* here; therefore I *do not* recognize him.

410. In conditions contrary to fact, the subjunctive without *if* is common. In this use, the subject follows the verb (§ 276).

Were he my friend, I should expect his help. [= If he *were* my friend. Present condition, contrary to fact.]

Had he *been* my friend, I should have expected his help. [= If he *had been* my friend. Past condition, contrary to fact.]

Future Conditions

411. **Future conditions** always imply **doubt,** for no one can tell what may or may not happen to-morrow.

412. In all future conditions, some verb-form denoting future time is used in both clauses.

413. Future conditions are classed as **more vivid** and **less vivid.**

1. A **more vivid** future condition suggests nothing as to the probability or improbability of the case supposed. The present indicative is regularly used in the *if*-clause, and the future indicative in the conclusion.

If it *rains* to-morrow, I *shall* not *go*.

In very formal or exact language a verb-phrase with *shall* may be used in the *if*-clause: as, — "If it *shall rain* to-morrow, I shall not go."

The present subjunctive is sometimes used in the *if*-clause. This form commonly suggests more doubt than the present indicative: — "If it *rain* to-morrow, I shall not go."

2. A **less vivid** future condition puts the supposed case rather vaguely, often with a considerable suggestion of doubt. A verb-phrase with *should* or *would* is used in both clauses.

If it *should rain* to-morrow, I *should* not *go*.

For the use of *should* or *would* in such clauses, see § 298.

A phrase with *were to* may replace the *should*-phrase in the *if*-clause. This form often emphasizes the suggestion of doubt: — "If it *were to rain* to-morrow, I should not go."

The past subjunctive may stand in the *if*-clause instead of the *should*-phrase: — "If it *rained* to-morrow, I should not go."

For *even if* in concessive clauses, see § 386; for *as if* in clauses of comparison, see § 414. For *if* (in the sense of *whether*) in indirect questions, see § 428.

VII. CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

414. An adverbial clause introduced by *as if* may express comparison.[1]

You speak *as if you were angry*.
He breathes *as if he were exhausted*.
She cared for me *as if I had been her son*.

As though is also used, but *as if* is now preferred by most writers.

Clauses with *as if* are elliptical in origin. Thus, "The man acts as if he were crazy" is equivalent to "The man acts as [he would act] if he were crazy." But it is not necessary to supply the ellipsis in analyzing.

415. The subjunctive *were*, not the indicative *was*, is used after *as if* (§ 277).

[1] Clauses introduced by *as* are often called **clauses of manner.**

416. *As* and *than*, as subordinate conjunctions, introduce **clauses of comparison** or **degree.**

You are as old *as he* [*is*]. He weighs as much *as I* [*weigh*].
I am younger *than you* [*are*]. I pity you more *than* [*I pity*] *her.*

When the verb is omitted, the substantive that follows *as* or *than* is in the same case in which it would stand if the verb were expressed. Thus, —

You are stronger than *he.* [NOT: than *him.*]
They are wiser than *we.* [NOT: than *us.*]
I see you oftener than *him.* [NOT: than *he.*]
He plays a better game than *I.* [NOT: than *me.*]
They will miss John more than *me.* [That is: more than they miss *me.*]

VIII. INDIRECT DISCOURSE

417. A quotation may be **direct** or **indirect.**

A direct quotation repeats a speech or thought in its original form.

I replied, "I am sorry to hear it."
"Henceforth," he explained, "I shall call on Tuesdays."
"You must see California," she insisted.
"This mosaic pavement," said the guide, "is Roman."[1]

An indirect quotation repeats a speech or thought in substance, but usually with some change in its form.

An indirect quotation, when a statement, is a subordinate clause dependent on some word of *saying* or *thinking*, and introduced by the conjunction *that.*

I replied *that I was sorry to hear it.* [Direct: I am sorry.]
He explained *that henceforth he should call on Tuesdays.*
She insisted *that I must see California.*
The guide said *that this mosaic pavement was Roman.*

A direct quotation begins with a **capital letter**, unless it is a fragment of a sentence. It is regularly enclosed in **quotation marks. An indirect quotation** begins with a **small letter.** It usually has no quotation marks.

[1] In analyzing, the direct quotation may be regarded as the object of the verb of saying, etc. (or the subject, if that verb is passive); and if it forms a complete sentence, this may be analyzed as if it stood by itself. It is not proper to regard the direct quotation as a subordinate clause.

418. A substantive clause introduced by *that* may be used with verbs and other expressions of *telling, thinking, knowing,* and *perceiving,* to report the words or thought of a person in substance, but usually with some change of form. Such clauses are said to be in the indirect discourse.

For distinction, a remark or a thought in its original form (as in a direct quotation) is said to be in the **direct discourse.**

419. Statements in **indirect discourse,** being substantive clauses, may be used in various noun constructions: (1) as **object** of some verb of *telling, thinking,* or the like, (2) as **subject,** (3) as **predicate nominative,** (4) as **appositive.**

He said *that the box was empty.* [Object.]
That the box was empty was all he could say. [Subject.]
My remark was *that the bill is a menace.* [Predicate nominative.]
His remark, *that the bill is a menace,* is absurd. [Apposition.]

420. The conjunction *that* is often omitted.

Jack said [*that*] he was sorry.

421. In indirect discourse, after the past or the pluperfect tense, the present tense of the direct discourse becomes past, and the perfect becomes pluperfect; but a **general truth** remains in the present tense.

1. DIRECT: I *am* tired.
   INDIRECT: John $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{said}\\ \text{had said}\end{matrix}\right\}$ that he *was* tired.
2. DIRECT: I *have won.*
   INDIRECT: John $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{said}\\ \text{had said}\end{matrix}\right\}$ that he *had won.*
3. DIRECT: Air *is* a gas. [General truth.]
   INDIRECT: I told him that air *is* [NOT *was*] a gas.

422. The clause with *that* in indirect discourse is sometimes replaced by an infinitive clause (§ 316).

The jury declared *that he was innocent.*
The jury declared *him to be innocent.* [*Him* is the subject of the infinitive, not the object of *declared.*]

423. When the verb of *telling* or *thinking* is in the **passive voice,** three constructions occur: —

1. A clause with *that* is the subject of the passive verb.

That Rogers desires the office is commonly reported.

2. The expletive *it* is used as the grammatical subject, and a *that*-clause follows the passive verb.

It is commonly reported *that Rogers desires the office.*

3. The subject of the *that*-clause becomes the subject of the passive verb, and the verb of the clause becomes an infinitive.

Rogers is commonly reported *to desire* the office.

NOTE. The third of these idioms is often called the **personal construction,** to distinguish it from the second, in which the grammatical subject is the expletive *it* (§ 224, 2). The infinitive in this third idiom may be regarded as a peculiar adverbial modifier of the passive verb.

424. A substantive clause with *that* is common after *it seems, it is true, it is evident,* and similar expressions.

It seems *that Robert has lost all his money.*
It is true *that genius does not always bring happiness with it.*

This construction is really the same as that in § 423, 2.

425. The uses of *shall* and *will, should* and *would,* in **indirect discourse** are the same as in **direct,** with one exception: —

When the first person with *shall* or *should* in direct discourse becomes the second or third person in the indirect, *shall* or *should* is retained.

DIRECT:	You say, "*I shall* die."	You said, "*I shall* die."
INDIRECT:	You say that *you shall* die.	You said that *you should* die.
DIRECT:	He says, "*I shall* die."	He said, "*I shall* die."
INDIRECT:	He says that *he shall* die.	He said that *he should* die.

The change from *shall* to *should* is merely a change in the tense of the auxiliary verb (§ 421).

IX. INDIRECT QUESTIONS

426. A question expressed in the form actually used in asking it is called a direct question.

"What is your name?" he asked.

427. An indirect question expresses the substance of a direct question in the form of a subordinate clause.

Indirect questions depend on verbs or other expressions of *asking, doubting, thinking, perceiving,* and the like.

He asked *what my name was.* [Direct question: What is your name?]

Franklin asked *where the difficulty lay.* [Direct question: Where does the difficulty lie?]

The sergeant wondered *how he should escape.* [Direct question: How shall I escape?]

I have not decided *which train I shall take.* [Direct question: Which train shall I take?]

428. Both **direct** and **indirect questions** may be introduced (1) by the interrogative pronouns *who, which, what;* (2) by the interrogative adverbs *when, where, whence, whither, how, why.*

Indirect questions may be introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *whether* (*whether . . . or*) and *if.*

The use of **tenses** in indirect questions is the same as in the indirect discourse (§ 421).

The constable inquired *whether* (or *if*) *I lived in Casterbridge.* [His question was: Do you live in Casterbridge?]

Your father wishes to know *if you have been playing truant.* [Direct question: Have you been playing truant?]

I considered *whether I should apply to Kent or to Arnold.* [Direct question: Shall I apply to Kent or to Arnold?]

429. Indirect questions are usually noun clauses. They may be used in various noun constructions: (1) as **object** of some verb of **asking** or the like, (2) as **subject,** (3) as **predicate nominative,** (4) as **appositive,** (5) as **object** of a preposition.

The skipper asked *what had become of the cook.* [Object.]

He was asked *what his profession was.* [Retained object after the passive (§§ 249, 378).]

How we could escape was a difficult question. [Subject.]

The problem was *how they should find food.* [Predicate nominative.]

The question *who was to blame* has never been settled. [Apposition with *question.*]

They were in doubt as to *what they should do.* [Object of preposition.]

An indirect question may be an adverbial clause.

He was uncertain *what he should do.* [The clause modifies *uncertain.*]
Edmund was in doubt *where he should spend the night.* [The clause modifies the adjective phrase *in doubt.*]

430. An indirect question is sometimes expressed by means of an interrogative pronoun or adverb followed by an infinitive.

Whom to choose is the question. [Direct: Whom shall we choose?]
John asked *what to do.* [John's question was: What shall I do?]
I know *where to go.* [Direct question: Where shall I go?]
Tell me *when to strike the bell.*
I was at a loss *how to reply.*

In the first four examples the italicized phrase is used as a noun (either as subject or as object). In the fifth, the phrase *how to reply* is adverbial, modifying the adjective phrase *at a loss.*

431. The subjunctive was formerly common in indirect questions, and is still occasionally used after *if* or *whether.*

I doubt if it *be* true.
Elton questioned whether the project *were* wise.

432. The rule for *shall* (*should*) and *will* (*would*) in indirect questions is, to retain the auxiliary used in the direct question, merely changing the tense (*shall* to *should; will* to *would*) when necessary (§ 428).

NOTE. There is a single exception to the rule. When, in changing from a direct to an indirect question, the third person with *will* or *would* becomes the first, *shall* or *should* is substituted unless volition is expressed. Thus, John says to Thomas, "*Will Charles* die of his wound?" Charles, reporting John's question, says, "John asked Thomas whether *I should* die of my wound." Compare § 425.

PART THREE

ANALYSIS

CHAPTER I

THE ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE — MODIFIERS

433. **Analysis** in grammar is the separation of a sentence into its constituent parts, or **elements.** To dissect a sentence in this way is to **analyze** it.

434. The elements which make up a **sentence** are: (1) the **simple subject** (or **subject substantive**); (2) the **simple predicate** (or **predicate verb**); (3) **modifiers**; (4) the **complements,** — direct object, predicate objective, predicate adjective, predicate nominative; and (5) the so-called **independent elements,** — the interjection, the vocative (or nominative of direct address), the exclamatory nominative, and various parenthetical expressions (§ 465).

435. The essentials for a sentence are a **substantive as subject** and a **verb as predicate.** By combining these two indispensable elements, in various ways, with **modifiers** and **complements,** the sentence may be extended to any length desired.

436. The various kinds of **modifiers** and **complements** have all been studied in preceding chapters, — each in connection with the construction which it illustrates. For purposes of analysis, however, it is necessary to consider modifiers as such and complements as such.

The topics will be taken up in the following order: (1) modifiers — of the subject, of the predicate; (2) complements; (3) modifiers of complements; (4) modifiers of modifiers.

437. **A word or group of words that changes or modifies the meaning of another word is called a modifier** (§ 20).

438. Modifiers may be attached not only to substantives and verbs, but also to adjectives and adverbs. All modifiers of substantives are called **adjective modifiers**; all modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are called **adverbial modifiers.**

439. **A phrase or a clause used as an adjective modifier is called an adjective phrase or clause. A phrase or a clause used as an adverbial modifier is called an adverbial phrase or clause.**

Able men
Men *of ability* } can always find employment.
Men *who have ability*

I spoke { *thoughtlessly.* [Adverb.]
without thinking. [Adverbial phrase.]
before I thought. [Adverbial clause.]

MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT

440. Any substantive in the sentence may take an adjective modifier, but **modifiers of the subject** are particularly important.

441. The simple subject may be modified by (1) an **adjective,** an **adjective phrase,** or an **adjective clause**; (2) a **participle**; (3) an **infinitive**; (4) a **possessive**; (5) an **appositive.**

I. ADJECTIVES, ADJECTIVE PHRASES, ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

442. The simple subject may be modified by an **adjective,** an **adjective phrase,** or an **adjective clause.**

Ivory trinkets
Trinkets *of ivory* } lay scattered about.
Trinkets *which were carved from ivory*

Treeless spots
Spots *without trees* } were plainly visible.
Spots *where no trees grew*

In each of these groups of sentences, the subject of the first sentence is modified by an **adjective,** that of the second by an **adjective phrase,** that of the third by an **adjective clause.**

II–III. PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES

443. The subject may be modified by a **participle** or an **infinitive** (with or without modifier or complement).

1. *Smiling*, the child shook his head.
2. My aunt, *reassured*, took up her book again.
3. The prisoner sank back *exhausted*.
4. *Exasperated* beyond endurance, the captain cut the rope.
5. John, *obeying* a sudden impulse, took to his heels.
6. *Having broken* one oar, Robert had to scull.
7. The natives, *fearing* captivity above all things, fought bravely.
8. Albert left the room, *looking* rather sullen.

In the fourth example, the participle is modified by an adverbial phrase; in the fifth and sixth, it has an object; in the seventh, it has both an object and a modifier; in the eighth, it is followed by the predicate adjective *sullen*.

In analysis, the whole participial phrase (consisting of the participle and accompanying words) may be treated as an adjective phrase modifying the subject; but it is simpler to regard the participle as the modifier, and then to enumerate its modifiers, etc., separately. Thus, in the seventh example, the simple subject *natives* is modified by the participle *fearing*, which has for a complement *captivity* (its direct object) and is modified by the adverbial phrase *above all things*.

9. Eagerness *to learn* was young Lincoln's strongest passion.
10. Ability *to write rapidly* is a valuable accomplishment.
11. Howard's unwillingness *to desert a friend* cost him his life.

In the tenth example, the infinitive has an adverbial modifier (*rapidly*); and in the eleventh, it has a complement, its object (*friend*). In such instances, two methods of analysis are allowable, as in the case of participial phrases.

IV. POSSESSIVES

444. The subject may be modified by a substantive in the **possessive case.** This is called a **possessive modifier.**

Napoleon's tomb is in Paris. The *Indians'* camp was near.

In each example, the possessive modifies the subject by limiting its meaning precisely as an adjective would do.

V. APPOSITIVES

445. The subject may be modified by a **substantive in apposition** (§ 83, 5).

Meredith the *carpenter* lives in that house.

Herbert, our *captain*, has broken his leg.

The idol of the Aztecs, a grotesque *image*, was thrown down by the Spaniards.

Many books, both *pamphlets* and bound *volumes*, littered the table. [Here the subject (*books*) is modified by two appositives.]

446. Appositives often have modifiers of their own. Thus *carpenter* is modified by the adjective *the*, *captain* by the possessive *our*, *image* by the adjectives *a* and *grotesque*.

In analyzing, the whole appositive phrase (consisting of the appositive and attached words) may be regarded as modifying the subject. It is as well, however, to treat the appositive as the modifier and then to enumerate the adjectives, etc., by which the appositive itself is modified.

447. A **noun clause** may be used as an appositive, and so may be an adjective modifier (§ 375).

The question *whether Antonio was a citizen* was settled in the affirmative. [Here the italicized clause is used as a noun in apposition with *question*.]

The statement *that water freezes* seems absurd to a native of the torrid zone. [The clause *that water freezes* is in apposition with *statement*.]

An adjective in the appositive position is often called an **appositive adjective** (§ 170): — "A sword, *keen* and *bright*, flashed from the soldier's scabbard."

MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE

448. The **simple predicate**, being a verb or verb-phrase, can have only **adverbial modifiers.**

The simple predicate may be modified by (1) an **adverb**, an **adverbial phrase**, or an **adverbial clause**, (2) an **infinitive**, (3) an **adverbial objective**, (4) a **nominative absolute**, (5) an **indirect object**, (6) a **cognate object.**

I. ADVERB, ADVERBIAL PHRASE, ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

449. The simple predicate (predicate verb) may be modified by an **adverb,** an **adverbial phrase,** or an **adverbial clause.**

The old schoolhouse stands { *there.* / *at the crossroads.* / *where the roads meet.*

We left the hall { *early.* / *before the last speech.* / *while the last speech was being delivered.*

In each of these groups, the simple predicate of the first sentence is modified by an adverb, that of the second by an adverbial phrase, and that of the third by an adverbial clause.

Most adverbial phrases are prepositional (§ 42).

II. INFINITIVE

450. The simple predicate may be modified by an **infinitive** (§ 314).

He lay down *to rest.*	Jack worked hard *to fell* the tree.
The fire continued *to burn.*	Kate began *to weep* bitterly.
The wind began *to subside.*	That pilot seems *to be* skilful.

The infinitive may have a complement or a modifier, as in the last three examples.

III. ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE

451. The simple predicate may be modified by an **adverbial objective** (§ 111).

I have waited *ages.*	We have walked *miles.*

The addition of modifiers to the adverbial objective makes an adverbial phrase.

Walter ran *the entire distance.*	He came at me *full tilt.*
I will forgive you *this time.*	The wind blew *all night.*

The adverbial phrase *the entire distance* modifies the verb *ran* as an adverb would do. This phrase consists of the noun *distance* with its adjective modifiers, *the* and *entire.*

IV. NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

452. The simple predicate may be modified by a **nominative absolute** (§ 336).

A substantive in the **absolute construction** makes with its modifiers an adverbial phrase.

The ship having arrived, we all embarked.
We shall sail on Tuesday, *weather permitting*.
That done, repair to Pompey's theatre.

In the first sentence, the absolute phrase, *the ship having arrived*, is equivalent to the prepositional phrase *on the arrival of the ship*, and defines the time of the action expressed by the verb *embarked*. In the second, *weather permitting* is equivalent to a conditional clause, *if the weather permits*.

V. INDIRECT OBJECT

453. The simple predicate may be modified by an **indirect object** (§ 103). This, being equivalent to a prepositional phrase, is an adverbial modifier.

He gave *me* a watch. [= He gave a watch *to me*.]
Tom told *me* the whole story. [= Tom told the whole story *to me*.]

The objective of service (§ 108) is also an adverbial modifier.

VI. COGNATE OBJECT

454. The simple predicate may be modified by a **cognate object** or by a phrase containing such an object (§ 110).

The officer looked *daggers* at me [= looked at me angrily].
The shepherd sang a merry *song* [= sang merrily].
The skipper laughed a scornful *laugh* [= laughed scornfully].

In the first sentence, the cognate object (*daggers*) modifies the predicate verb (*looked*) as the adverb *angrily* would do. It is therefore an adverbial modifier. In the second and third sentences, the modifier of the predicate verb (*sang*, *laughed*) is an adverbial phrase consisting of a cognate object (*song*, *laugh*) with its adjective modifiers (*a merry*, *a scornful*).

CHAPTER II

COMPLEMENTS

455. 1. Some verbs have a meaning that is **complete in itself.** Such a verb needs only a subject. When this has been supplied, we have a sentence, for the mere verb, without any additional word or words, is capable of being a predicate.

Birds *fly*.	The owls *hooted*.
Fishes *swim*.	The clock *ticked*.

Verbs of this kind are sometimes called **complete verbs,** or **verbs of complete predication.**

2. Other verbs cannot, by themselves, serve as predicates.

The Indians killed ——.	Tom is ——.
Mr. Harris makes ——.	The man seemed ——.

These are not sentences, for the predicate verb of each requires a substantive or an adjective to complete its sense.

The Indians killed *deer*.	Tom is *captain*.
Mr. Harris makes *shoes*.	The man seemed *sorry*.

Verbs of this kind are often called **incomplete verbs,** or **verbs of incomplete predication.**

NOTE. The meaning of the verb determines to which of these classes it belongs. Accordingly, the same verb may belong to the first class in some of its senses and to the second in others (§§ 210–213).

456. A substantive or adjective added to the predicate verb to complete its meaning is called a complement.

Complements are of four kinds, — the direct object, the predicate objective, the predicate nominative, and the predicate adjective.

In the examples in § 455, *deer* and *shoes* are **direct objects,** — the former denoting the **receiver** of the action, the latter denoting the **product**; *captain* is a **predicate nominative,** denoting the same person as the subject *Tom* (§ 83, 2); *sorry* is a predicate adjective describing the subject *man* (§§ 170–171).

457. Complements may be modified. If substantives, they may take adjective modifiers; if adjectives, adverbial modifiers (§§ 438, 458).

1. THE DIRECT OBJECT OF A VERB

1. Alfred has broken his *arm*.
2. Morse invented the electric *telegraph*.
3. You have accomplished a *task* of great difficulty.
4. Have you lost the *dog* which your uncle gave you?
5. He asked *me* the *news*. [Two direct objects (§ 99).]

Most of these objects are modified, — *arm* by the possessive *his*; *telegraph* by *the* and *electric*; *task* by *a* and by the adjective phrase *of great difficulty*; *dog* by *the* and by the adjective clause *which your uncle gave you*.

6. You promised *that my coat should be ready to-day*.
7. The mayor ordered *that the street should be closed for three hours*.
8. I begged *that my passport might be returned to me*.

In examples 6–8 a noun clause is used as the object. See §§ 375, 377, 395, 419, 429.

2. THE PREDICATE OBJECTIVE

1. The people have elected Chamberlain *governor*.
2. Peter calls Richard my *shadow*.
3. The court has appointed you the child's *guardian*.
4. John thinks himself a *hero*.
5. I thought your decision *hasty*.
6. I call that answer *impertinent*.
7. The jury found the prisoner *guilty*.

In examples 5–7 an adjective serves as predicate objective (§ 101).

3. THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE[1]

1. Chemistry is a useful *science*.
2. Boston is the *capital* of Massachusetts.
3. Jefferson became *President*.
4. This bird is called a *flamingo*.
5. Albert has been chosen *captain* of the crew.
6. You are a *friend* upon whom I can rely.

[1] For the distinction between the predicate nominative and the direct object, see § 97.

In most of the examples, the predicate nominative has one or more modifiers. In the first sentence, *science* is modified by the two adjectives *a* and *useful;* in the second, *capital* is modified by the adjective *the* and the adjective phrase *of Massachusetts;* in the last, *friend* is modified by the adjective *a* and the adjective clause *upon whom I can rely*.

7. My plan is *that the well should be dug to-morrow.*
8. The result is *that he is bankrupt.*
9. Ruth's fear was *that the door might be locked.*
10. To hear is *to obey.*
11. My hope was *to reach* the summit before dark.
12. Their plan was *to undermine* the tower.
13. My habit is *to rise* early.

In examples 7–9 a noun clause, in examples 10–13 an infinitive, is used as a predicate nominative. The infinitive may have a complement or modifiers. In the eleventh and twelfth examples, it takes an object; in the thirteenth, it is modified by an adverb.

4. THE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE

1. John was *angry.*
2. My knife is growing *dull.*
3. The task seemed very *easy.*
4. The report proved *false* in every particular.
5. The boat was thought *unsafe.*
6. The cover was made perfectly *tight.*
7. The road is *rough* where they are repairing it.

In some of these examples, the predicate adjective has a modifier. In the third, *easy* is modified by the adverb *very;* in the fourth, *false* is modified by the adverbial phrase *in every particular;* in the sixth, *tight* is modified by *perfectly;* in the last, *rough* is modified by an adverbial clause.

8. Richard was *out of health.* [Compare: Richard was *ill.*]
9. Rachel seemed *in a passion.* [Compare: seemed *angry.*]
10. This act is *against my interests.* [Compare: is *harmful* to me.]
11. Tom's coat was *in tatters.* [Compare: was *ragged.*]
12. Your wisdom is *beyond dispute.* [Compare: is *indisputable.*]

In examples 8–12 an adjective phrase is used as a predicate adjective. The adjective phrase may consist of an infinitive with or without the preposition *about* (§ 310).

I was *about to speak.*
This house is *to let.*
I am *to sail* to-morrow.

In the last example the infinitive *to sail* is modified by the adverb *to-morrow.*

CHAPTER III

MODIFIERS OF COMPLEMENTS AND OF MODIFIERS

COMPLEMENTS MODIFIED

458. Complements, being either substantives or adjectives, may be modified in various ways, most of which have been noted in Chapter II.

1. A **substantive** used as a **complement** may have the same kinds of modifiers that are used with the **subject** (§ 441).

2. An **adjective complement** admits only **adverbial modifiers.**

459. The following sentences illustrate the modifiers of substantive complements: —

Herbert lost *a gold* watch. [The direct object (*watch*) is modified by the adjectives *a* and *gold.*]

The duke built towers *of marble.* [The direct object (*towers*) is modified by the adjective phrase *of marble.*]

My father built *the* house *in which I was born.* [The direct object (*house*) is modified by the adjective *the* and the adjective clause *in which I was born.*]

I saw *a* man *running* across the field. [The direct object (*man*) is modified by the adjective *a* and the participle *running.*]

You have forfeited *your* right *to vote.* [The direct object (*right*) is modified by the possessive pronoun *your* and the infinitive *to vote.*]

I have seen *Henry's* brother. [The direct object (*brother*) is modified by the possessive noun *Henry's.*]

I must ask *my* brother, the *mayor.* [The direct object (*brother*) is modified by the possessive pronoun *my* and the appositive *mayor.*]

The guild has elected Walter *honorary* president. [The predicate objective (*president*) is modified by the adjective *honorary.*]

Her husband is *an old* soldier. [The predicate nominative (*soldier*) is modified by the adjectives *an* and *old.*]

They are rivals *in business.* [The predicate nominative (*rivals*) is modified by the adjective phrase *in business.*]

The author is Will Jewell, *who was formerly editor of* "*The Pioneer.*" [The predicate nominative (*Will Jewell*) is modified by the adjective clause *who was formerly editor*, etc.]

Baldwin is *the* man *standing* under the tree. [The predicate nominative (*man*) is modified by the adjective *the* and the participle *standing*.]

Your chief fault is *your* inclination *to procrastinate*. [The predicate nominative (*inclination*) is modified by the possessive pronoun *your* and the infinitive *to procrastinate*.]

This man is *Dora's* brother. [The predicate nominative (*brother*) is modified by the possessive noun *Dora's*.]

The first to fall was *the* bugler, *John Wilson*. [The predicate nominative (*bugler*) is modified by the adjective *the* and the appositive *John Wilson*.]

460. **Adjective clauses** are very common as modifiers of substantive complements (cf. § 442).

Have you lost the watch *that your cousin gave you?*

461. An **adjective** used as a complement may be modified by an **adverb,** an **adverbial phrase,** or an **adverbial clause.**

I am *very* sorry *for you*. [*Sorry* is modified by the adverb *very* and the adverbial phrase *for you*.]

Charles seems { *rather* / *very* / *extremely* } angry.

The road is rough { *in places.* / *where they are repairing it.* }

MODIFIERS OF OTHER MODIFIERS

462. **Modifiers may themselves be modified.**

I. **Adjectives** or **adjective phrases** may be modified by **adverbs** or by words or groups of words used adverbially.

A *very* old man came to the door.

An *exceedingly* dangerous curve lay beyond the bridge.

The quay is *miles* long. [Adverbial objective (§ 111).]

At least five different amendments have been offered. [*Five* is modified by the adverbial phrase *at least*.]

The general, *wholly* in the dark as to the enemy's intentions, ordered an advance. [The adjective phrase *in the dark* is modified by *wholly*.]

Her smile, pathetic *in its weariness*, quickly faded. [The adverbial phrase modifies *pathetic*.]

This sleeve is *a good two inches* short. [The phrase modifies *short*.]

II. **Possessive nouns** may be modified by adjectives or by possessives.

The poor man's days are numbered.
Honest Tom's face shone with delight.
The faithful animal's head drooped.
Jack's grandfather's house is on fire!
My aunt's parrot is a great talker.

III. **Appositives** may be modified by adjectives or by groups of words used as adjectives.

Joe, *the old* butler, met me at the station.
Her mother, a woman *of fashion*, sadly neglected her.
Ferdinand Oliver, the engineer *who had charge of the construction*, proved incompetent.

IV. **Adverbs** or **adverbial phrases** may be modified by adverbs or by words or groups of words used adverbially.

Jane plays *very* well.
Robert spoke *almost* hopefully.
She answered *quite* at random.
You get up *astonishingly* early *in the morning*.
I write to him *at least* once *a year*.

463. An adjective may be modified by an **infinitive** (§ 312).

Unable *to move*, I suffered torments of anxiety.
The sailors, eager *to reach* the island, plunged into the sea.
This riddle is hard *to guess*.
I am willing *to work* but not strong enough *to handle* freight.

464. **Adjective** and **adverbial clauses** are very common as modifiers of modifiers (cf. § 460).

Geronimo, an old chief *who bore the scars of many battles*, led the attack. [The adjective clause modifies the appositive *chief*.]
The servant, angry *because he had been rebuked*, slammed the door.
The hunter, confident *that the deer had not heard him*, took aim.
The fugitive, in a panic *lest he should be overtaken*, made frantic efforts to scale the cliff. [The adverbial clause modifies the adjective phrase *in a panic*.]

CHAPTER IV

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

465. A word or group of words that has no grammatical connection with the sentence in which it stands is called an independent element.

Independent elements are of four kinds, — interjections, vocatives (or nominatives of direct address), exclamatory nominatives, and parenthetical expressions.

1. *Ah!* why did I undertake this task?
2. Help arrived, *alas!* too late.
3. You are a strange man, *Arthur*.
4. *Mary*, come here!
5. Poor *Charles!* I am sorry for him.
6. *Clothes! clothes!* you are always wanting clothes.
7. Lucky *she!* we are all envious of her prospects.

The first two sentences contain **interjections** (§ 363); the second two, **vocatives** (or nominatives of direct address) (§ 83, 3); the last three, **exclamatory nominatives** (§ 83, 4).

When the independent word has a **modifier** (as in the fifth and seventh examples), the whole phrase may be treated as an independent element.

466. A word or group of words attached to or inserted in a sentence as a mere comment, without belonging either to the subject or the predicate, is said to be parenthetical.

The market, *indeed*, was already closed.
Peter, *to be sure*, was not very trustworthy.
The house, *at all events*, is safe.
The road is, *I admit*, very hilly.
Luttrell's method, *it must be confessed*, was a little disappointing.
Richard was not a bad fellow, *after all*.
Generally speaking, such a policy is unwise. [See § 330.]

467. In analysis, an independent element is mentioned by itself, and not as a part of the complete subject or the complete predicate.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

SIMPLE SENTENCES

468. In analyzing a **simple sentence,** we first divide it into the **complete subject** and the **complete predicate.** Then we point out the **simple subject** (a substantive) with its **modifiers,** and the **simple predicate** (a verb or verb-phrase) with its **modifiers** and **complement** (if there is one). If either the subject or the predicate is compound, we mention the simple subjects or predicates that are joined.

1. The polar bear lives in the Arctic regions.

This is a simple sentence. The complete subject is *the polar bear;* the complete predicate is *lives in the Arctic regions.* The simple subject is the noun *bear;* the simple predicate is the verb *lives. Bear* is modified by the adjectives *the* and *polar; lives* is modified by the adverbial phrase *in the Arctic regions.* This phrase consists of the preposition *in;* its object, the noun *regions;* and the adjectives *the* and *Arctic,* modifying *regions.*

2. The polar bear and the walrus live and thrive in the Arctic regions.

The complete subject is *the polar bear and the walrus.* Two simple subjects (*bear* and *walrus*) are joined by the conjunction *and* to make a compound subject, and two simple predicates (*live* and *thrive*) are joined by *and* to make a compound predicate. *Live* and *thrive* are both modified by the adverbial phrase *in the Arctic regions.*

469. Other examples of simple sentences are as follows: —

1. She was tumbled early, by accident or design, into a spacious closet of good old English reading, without much selection or prohibition, and browsed at will upon that fair and wholesome pasturage.

This is a simple sentence. The subject is *she.* The complete predicate is the rest of the sentence. This predicate is compound, containing the two verbs *was tumbled* and *browsed. Was tumbled* is modified by the adverb *early,* and by the adverbial phrases *by accident or design, into . . . reading,* and *without . . . prohibition. Browsed* is modified by the adverbial phrases *at will* and *upon that fair and wholesome pasturage.*

2. Arming a desperate troop of slaves and gladiators, he overpowered the feeble guard of the domestic tranquillity of Rome, received the homage of the Senate, and precariously reigned during a tumult of twenty-eight days. — GIBBON.

This is a simple sentence. The complete subject is *arming . . . he;* the complete predicate is *overpowered . . . days* (the rest of the sentence). The simple subject is *he*, modified by the participle *arming*, which has for its complement *troop* (direct object), modified by the adjectives *a* and *desperate* and the adjective phrase *of slaves and gladiators*. Three simple predicates (or predicate verbs), *overpowered*, *received*, and *reigned* are joined to make a compound predicate. *Overpowered* has the complement *guard* (direct object), which is modified by the adjectives *the* and *feeble* and the adjective phrase *of the domestic tranquillity of Rome*. *Received* has the complement *homage* (direct object), which is modified by the adjective *the* and the adjective phrase *of the Senate*. *Reigned* is modified by the adverb *precariously* and the adverbial phrase *during a tumult of twenty-eight days*.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

470. In analyzing a **compound sentence** we first divide it into its **coördinate clauses,** and then analyze each clause by itself.

The polar bear lives in the Arctic regions, but it sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

This is a compound sentence consisting of two coördinate clauses joined by the conjunction *but:* (1) *the polar bear lives in the Arctic regions* and (2) *it sometimes reaches temperate latitudes*. The complete subject of the first clause is *the polar bear* [and so on, as in § 468, above]. The subject of the second clause is *it;* the complete predicate is *sometimes reaches temperate latitudes*. The simple predicate is *reaches*, which is modified by the adverb *sometimes* and is completed by the direct object *latitudes*. The complement *latitudes* is modified by the adjective *temperate*.

471. The following are examples of compound sentences:—

1. States fall, arts fade, but Nature does not die. — BYRON.

2. The court was sitting; the case was heard; the judge had finished; and only the verdict was yet in arrear. — DE QUINCEY.

3. He softly blushed; he sighed; he hoped; he feared; he doubted; he sometimes yielded to the delightful idea. — THACKERAY.

4. A mob appeared before the window, a smart rap was heard at the door, the boys hallooed, and the maid announced Mr. Grenville. — COWPER.

5. His health had suffered from confinement ; his high spirit had been cruelly wounded ; and soon after his liberation he died of a broken heart.

6. A cricket chirps on the hearth, and we are reminded of Christmas gambols long ago. — Hazlitt.

7. The moments were numbered ; the strife was finished ; the vision was closed. — De Quincey.

8. The old king had retired to his couch that night in one of the strongest towers of the Alhambra, but his restless anxiety kept him from repose. — Irving.

9. The clock has just struck two ; the expiring taper rises and sinks in the socket ; the watchman forgets his hour in slumber ; the laborious and the happy are at rest ; and nothing wakes but meditation, guilt, revelry, and despair. — Goldsmith. [Five coördinate clauses.]

10. The present, indeed, is not a contest for distant or contingent objects ; it is not a contest for acquisition of territory ; it is not a contest for power and glory ; as little is it carried on merely for any commercial advantage, or any particular form of government ; but it is a contest for the security, the tranquillity, and the very existence of Great Britain, connected with that of every established government and every country in Europe. — Pitt. [Five coördinate clauses.]

COMPLEX SENTENCES

472. In analyzing a **complex sentence,** we first divide it into the **main clause** and the **subordinate clause.**

1. The polar bear, which lives in the Arctic regions, sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

This is a complex sentence. The main clause is *the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes ;* the subordinate clause is *which lives in the Arctic regions.* The complete subject of the sentence is *the polar bear, which lives in the Arctic regions ;* the complete predicate is *sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.* The simple subject is *bear,* which is modified by the adjectives *the* and *polar* and by the adjective clause *which lives in the Arctic regions.* The simple predicate is *reaches,* which is modified by the adverb *sometimes* and completed by the direct object *latitudes.* This complement, *latitudes,* is modified by the adjective *temperate.* The subordinate clause is introduced by the relative pronoun *which.* [Then analyze the subordinate clause.]

2. The polar bear reaches temperate latitudes when the ice drifts southward.

This is a complex sentence. The main clause is *the polar bear reaches temperate latitudes ;* the subordinate clause is *when the ice drifts southward.*

The complete subject of the sentence is *the polar bear;* the complete predicate is *reaches temperate latitudes when the ice drifts southward.* The simple subject is *bear*, which is modified by the adjectives *the* and *polar.* The simple predicate is *reaches*, which is modified by the adverbial clause *when the ice drifts southward*, and completed by the noun *latitudes* (the direct object of *reaches*). The complement *latitudes* is modified by the adjective *temperate.* The subordinate clause is introduced by the relative adverb *when.* [Then analyze the subordinate clause.]

3. The polar bear, which lives in the Arctic regions when it is at home, sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

This is a complex sentence. The main clause is *the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes;* the subordinate clause is *which lives in the Arctic regions when it is at home*, which is complex, since it contains the adverbial clause *when it is at home*, modifying the verb *lives.*

4. He says that the polar bear lives in the Arctic regions.

This is a complex sentence. The main clause is *he says;* the subordinate clause is *that the polar bear lives in the Arctic regions.* The subject of the sentence is *he*, the complete predicate is *says that the polar bear lives in the Arctic regions.* The simple predicate is *says*, which is completed by its direct object, the noun clause *that . . . regions*, introduced by the conjunction *that.* [Then analyze the subordinate clause.]

5. That the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes is a familiar fact.

This is a complex sentence. The main clause (*is a familiar fact*) appears as a predicate only, since the subordinate clause (*that the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes*) is a noun clause used as the complete subject of the sentence. The simple predicate is *is*, which is completed by the predicate nominative *fact.* This complement is modified by the adjectives *a* and *familiar.* The subordinate clause, which is used as the complete subject, is introduced by the conjunction *that.* [Then analyze this clause.]

473. The following examples illustrate several varieties of the complex sentence: —

1. The gas exploded when I struck a match.
2. Though he is idle, he is not lazy.
3. The carpenter who fell from the roof has recovered from his injuries.
4. Their eyes were so fatigued with the eternal dazzle and whiteness, that they lay down on their backs upon deck to relieve their sight on the blue sky. — KEATS.

5. The shouts of thousands, their menacing gestures, the fierce clashing of their arms, astonished and subdued the courage of Vetranio, who stood, amidst the defection of his followers, in anxious and silent suspense. — GIBBON.

6. As they turned down from the knoll to rejoin their comrades, the sun dipped and disappeared, and the woods fell instantly into the gravity and grayness of the early night. — STEVENSON.

7. As the boat drew nearer to the city, the coast which the traveller had just left sank behind him into one long, low, sad-colored line. — RUSKIN.

8. Those dangers which, in the vigor of youth, we had learned to despise, assume new terrors as we grow old. — GOLDSMITH.

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX CLAUSES

474. Two or more **coördinate clauses** may be joined to make one **compound clause.**

The polar bear, *which lives in the Arctic regions and whose physical constitution is wonderfully adapted to that frigid climate*, sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

The polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes *when the floes break up and when the ice drifts southward.*

In the first example, the italicized words form a **compound adjective clause,** modifying the noun *bear.* It consists of two **coördinate adjective clauses** joined by *and.* These are coördinate because they are of the same **order** or **rank** in the sentence (§ 46), each being an adjective modifier of the noun.

In the second example, the predicate verb *reaches* is modified by a **compound adverbial clause,** similarly made up.

In analyzing a **compound clause,** we first divide it into the **coördinate clauses** of which it consists, and then analyze each of these separately.

475. A clause is **complex** when it contains a modifying clause.

The polar bear, *which lives in the Arctic regions when it is at home*, sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

Here the **adjective clause** *which lives in the Arctic regions when it is at home* is **complex,** for it contains the adverbial clause *when it is at home,* modifying the verb *lives.*

COMPOUND COMPLEX SENTENCES

476. Two or more independent complex clauses may be joined to make a **compound complex sentence.**[1]

The brown bear, of which there are several varieties, is common in the temperate regions of the Eastern Hemisphere; || and || the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes when the ice drifts southward.

This is a **compound complex sentence,** for it consists of two complex clauses joined by the coördinate conjunction *and.* Each of these two clauses is independent of the other, for each might stand by itself as a complex sentence.

The first complex clause contains an adjective clause, *of which there are several varieties,* modifying *bear;* the second contains an adverbial clause, *when the ice drifts southward,* modifying *reaches.*

477. A sentence consisting of two or more independent clauses is also classed as a compound complex sentence if any one of these is complex.

The brown bear is common in the temperate regions of the Eastern Hemisphere; || and || the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes when the ice drifts southward.

The brown bear, of which there are several varieties, is common in the temperate regions of the Eastern Hemisphere; || and || the polar bear sometimes reaches temperate latitudes.

Both of these are compound complex sentences. In one, the first clause is simple (§ 45) and the second is complex. In the other, the first clause is complex and the second is simple.

478. In analyzing a **compound complex** sentence, we first divide it into the **independent clauses** (simple or complex) of which it consists, and then analyze each of these as if it were a sentence by itself.

Thus, in § 476, we divide the sentence into two complex clauses and then analyze each.

[1] **Instead of compound complex, the term complex compound is often used.**

479. Further examples of **compound complex sentences** are: —

1. The people drove out King Athamas, because he had killed his child; and he roamed about in his misery, till he came to the Oracle in Delphi. — KINGSLEY.

2. Society is the stage on which manners are shown; novels are their literature. — EMERSON.

3. We keep no bees, but if I lived in a hive I should scarcely have more of their music. — COWPER.

4. The same river ran on as it had run on before, but the cheerful faces that had once been reflected in its stream had passed away. — FROUDE.

5. Here they arrived about noon, and Joseph proposed to Adams that they should rest awhile in this delightful place. — FIELDING.

6. I never saw a busier person than she seemed to be; yet it was difficult to say what she did. — C. BRONTË.

7. Old Uncle Venner was just coming out of his door, with a wood-horse and saw on his shoulder; and, trudging along the street, he scrupled not to keep company with Phœbe, so far as their paths lay together; nor, in spite of his patched coat and rusty beaver, and the curious fashion of his tow-cloth trousers, could she find it in her heart to outwalk him.
HAWTHORNE.

8. Hunger alone seems to stir him to exertion; and when it is stilled, he relapses into repose. — HUXLEY.

9. Then the road passes straight on through a waste moor, till at length the towers of a distant city appear before the traveller; and soon he is in the midst of the innumerable multitudes of Vanity Fair.
MACAULAY.

10. Medea shrieked a fearful shriek, and dashed the cup to the ground, and fled; and where the wine flowed over the marble pavement, the stone bubbled and crumbled and hissed under the fierce venom of the draught. — KINGSLEY.

11. He that hath a froward heart findeth no good; and he that hath a perverse tongue falleth into mischief. — PROVERBS.

CHAPTER VI

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

480. Good usage does not demand that all sentences shall be complete. It sometimes allows or requires the omission of words that, though necessary to the construction, are so easily supplied that they need not be spoken.

481. The omission of a word or words necessary to the grammatical completeness of a clause or sentence is called ellipsis.

A clause or sentence that shows ellipsis is said to be elliptical.

[I] thank you.
[I] pray do not [you] move.
[You] pass me that book.
Her hair is light, her eyes [are] dark blue.
Some of the strangers spoke French, others [spoke] Spanish.
Some of the patriots were armed with old flintlocks, others [were armed] with swords, still others [were armed] with pitchforks.
When [he was] a youth, he travelled in the East.
Though [he is] timid, he is no coward.
They were amused, though [they were] somewhat vexed.
While [we were] drifting downstream, we grounded on a sand bar.
If [it is] possible, send me word to-night.
You shall have the money this week, if [it is] necessary.
They marched slowly as if [they were] worn out.
Why [are you] so dejected? Why [are] these tears?
He was ten years of age, his brother [was] eight [years of age].
I have more confidence in James than [I have] in Edmund.
Mary is younger than George [is young].
Tom likes you better than [he likes] me.
You like him better than I do [like him].
I like him better than Charles does [like him].
This racket is not so heavy as that [is heavy].
You are not so old as I [am old].
Peace [be] to his memory!
This is the only pencil [that] I have.
Is that the boy [whom] you hired yesterday?
They say [that] you are going to Europe soon.

482. The examples in §.481 show that most cases of ellipsis fall under two heads: —

1. To avoid repetition, words are often omitted in one part of the sentence when they occur in another part.

2. Pronouns, the conjunction *that*, and some forms of the verb *is*, are often omitted when they are readily supplied.

Under the second head come (1) the ellipsis of the subject (*thou* or *you*) in imperative sentences (§ 263), (2) that of relative pronouns in the objective case (§ 150), (3) that of *is*, *are*, etc. (with the subject pronoun) in subordinate clauses introduced by *when*, *though*, *if*, and the like.

483. Adverbs indicating direction (like *forward*, *back*) are often used without a verb in imperative sentences.

Forward, brave companions!
Down on your knees!
Up, guards, and at them!

484. The ellipsis of the subordinate conjunction *that* is very common, especially in indirect discourse (§§ 357, 420).

I know [*that*] you are my friend.
Jack said [*that*] the boat had sunk.
He told me [*that*] he was sorry.

485. Before analyzing an elliptical sentence, we should supply the omitted word or words.

486. Many constructions, originally elliptical, have become established idioms in which no ellipsis is felt. In such cases it is usually better to take the sentence as it stands, and not to supply the omitted words.

Thus, in "He eats *as if he were famished*" the italicized words are properly treated as a subordinate clause modifying *eats* and introduced by the compound conjunction *as if*. Yet in strictness this construction is an ellipsis for "He eats as [*he would eat*] if he were famished."

EXERCISES

EXERCISE 1

(§§ 3–7, pp. 2–3)

1. Tell whether each of the following sentences is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory. If a sentence is both declarative and exclamatory, mention the fact. Mention the subject and the predicate of each sentence. Note all instances of the inverted order (§ 7).

1. The human mind is a great mystery. 2. The aged men were enjoying themselves thoroughly. 3. Brave is the laurel! 4. The laboring of the ship in the troubled sea on this night I shall never forget. 5. That last stroke of the hoe has cut off a bean-stalk. 6. Far around us lay a rich and lovely English landscape, with many a church-spire and noble country-seat. — HAWTHORNE. 7. Man is timid and apologetic. — EMERSON. 8. What a strain is a long book! — STEVENSON. 9. Can I ever bid these joys farewell? 10. The gallant chief within his cabin slept. — BYRON. 11. The hermit sits alone. 12. The enemy regarded his measures with apprehension. 13. How full of briers is this working-day world! — SHAKSPERE. 14. I was very well pleased with the knight's proposal. 15. The great expedition takes up everybody's thought. 16. How the pitiless tempest raves!

17. Over the sea our galleys went. 18. Will Judge Pyncheon make due apologies? 19. Be merciful in your dealings with him! 20. What men or gods are these? 21. Poetry is the breath and finer spirit of all knowledge. — WORDSWORTH. 22. There sits Mistress Alice quietly asleep! 23. Little Britain may truly be called the heart's core of the city. 24. The Bruce's followers crowd the shore. 25. Are these friends or enemies? 26. Don't talk to me about taverns! 27. The air was fresh but balmy. 28. What a scene did we witness! 29. Slow tolls the village clock the drowsy hour. 30. The clouds began to roll in heavy masses along the mountains. 31. Wide waves his flickering sword. 32. I was glad enough of this news. 33. They were in some distress for provisions. 34. Hours and hours and hours have I spent in endeavors altogether fruitless!

2. Write ten interrogative sentences concerning each topic. Reply in declarative sentences.

(1) The American Revolution; (2) the Dutch in New Amsterdam; (3) the history of your own state; (4) the government of the United States; (5) hygiene; (6) the manufactures (or commerce) of your town or city.

3. Write ten imperative sentences, each giving an order concerning —

(1) the playing of a game; (2) the building or sailing of a boat; (3) the care of the health; (4) the manufacture of some article of common use; (5) the writing of a business letter.

4. Write ten exclamatory sentences. Tell whether each is declarative, interrogative, or imperative.

EXERCISE 2

(§§ 8–26, pp. 3–10)

1. Tell the parts of speech (including verb-phrases) on page 157.

2. Use the following words in sentences of your own: —

Sleep (*noun*, *verb*); dry (*adjective*, *verb*, *noun*); very (*adverb*, *adjective*); express (*noun*, *verb*, *adjective*); bellow (*verb*, *noun*); American (*adjective*, *noun*); future (*adjective*, *noun*); to-morrow (*noun*, *adverb*); flower (*noun*, *verb*); sovereign (*noun*, *adjective*); summer (*noun*, *verb*, *adjective*); double (*adjective*, *adverb*, *verb*); well (*adjective*, *adverb*); fast (*adjective*, *adverb*, *noun*, *verb*); content (*noun*, *adjective*, *verb*); last (*adjective*, *adverb*, *verb*, *noun*); down (*adverb*, *preposition*); for (*preposition*, *conjunction*); downright (*adjective*, *adverb*); home (*noun*, *adjective*, *adverb*); lower (*adjective*, *adverb*, *verb*); iron (*noun*, *adjective*, *verb*); off (*adverb*, *preposition*, *adjective*); up (*adverb*, *preposition*); high (*adjective*, *adverb*, *noun*); except (*verb*, *preposition*); inside (*adjective*, *adverb*, *preposition*, *noun*); past (*noun*, *adjective*, *preposition*); what (*adjective*, *pronoun*, *interjection*); round (*noun*, *adjective*, *verb*, *preposition*, *adverb*); sound (*noun*, *verb*, *adjective*, ~~*adverb*~~); black (*noun*, *verb*, *adjective*); all (*noun*, *adjective*, *adverb*); open (*noun*, *adjective*, *verb*); while (*noun*, *verb*).

EXERCISE 3

(§§ 27–34, pp. 10–11)

Point out the infinitives and the participles. Tell when they occur in verb-phrases. Use them in sentences. Do the same with the sentences in Exercise 1 (p. 157).

1. You may assure yourself that I shall take my first opportunity to wait on you. 2. Meantime, what are we stopping for? 3. Something must be done to warn them. 4. He ordered me to set a candle by his bedside and to fetch him some papers out of his valise to read. 5. The pale stars are gone! 6. We must forget and forgive. 7. What has brought you so suddenly to Bath? 8. Two cavaliers rode up briskly to the chaise, commanding the coachman to stop.

EXERCISE 4

(§§ 35–39, pp. 12–13)

1. Mention the simple subject (subject substantive) and the simple predicate (predicate verb) of each sentence in Exercise 1 (p. 157). Tell whether the simple subject is a noun or a pronoun, and whether the simple predicate is a verb or a verb-phrase.

2. Study in the same way your own sentences in Exercise 1.

3. Divide each sentence into the complete subject and the complete predicate. If the sentence has a compound subject, mention the substantives that compose it; if the sentence has a compound predicate, mention the verbs (or verb-phrases).

1. They suddenly desisted from their play and stared at him. 2. He shook his head, shouldered the rusty firelock, and, with a heart full of trouble and anxiety, turned his steps homeward. 3. The occasional bark of a dog and the distant sound of an evening bell gave fresh romance to the scene. 4. Silk and embroidery distinguished their dresses, and marked the wealth and importance of their master. 5. Chanticleer and the ladies of his household regarded her with queer, sidelong glances, and then croaked to one another. 6. Here we met with a very terrible tornado or hurricane. 7. Winter and Petersen, standing next to Williams and seeing him so furious, flew at him immediately. 8. Two days after this they took a Bristol ship, bound from Newfoundland to Oporto with fish.

9. She makes a nice cheery little curtsey, and looks quite gay, pleased, and pretty. 10. Alone she cuts and binds the grain. 11. He turned away and strode off in the opposite direction. 12. Terror and guilt were in his look. 13. The natives were civil enough to us, and came often to discourse with us. 14. Harvey heard a step, looked up, and shuddered. 15. Not a vine, not an almond tree, was to be seen on the slopes of the sunny hills. 16. Wheels, axles, linchpins, pole, glasses, lamps, were all critically probed and tested. 17. Often a wolf or some other prowling beast would disturb his slumber. 18. She went to the window and looked out.

EXERCISE 5

(§§ 40–42, pp. 13–14)

1. Point out the noun-phrases, verb-phrases, adjective phrases, and adverbial phrases. Which of these phrases are prepositional?

1. The whole wilderness has blossomed into a garden. 2. Our chaise whirled rapidly over the frozen ground. 3. The sunshine of heaven fell like a gift of grace on the mud of the earth, on the remembering and mute stones, on greed, selfishness, on the anxious faces of forgetful men. — Conrad. 4. Long under Basil's roof had he lived. 5. A student with book in hand was seated on a stone bench. 6. She read one of the conversations between Rasselas and Imlac, in a high-pitched majestic voice. 7. On the twenty-eighth, Greene arrived at Ramsey's Mills, on Deep River.

8. And so we began our journey; sadly, under dripping trees and a leaden sky. 9. The royal army was assembling fast at Salisbury. 10. Old Lord Fairfax, the Nimrod of Greenway Court, had lived on in a green old age at his sylvan retreat in the beautiful valley of the Shenandoah. — Irving. 11. The forests had rung with the clamor of the huntsmen. 12. With daylight Isabel resumed her work. 13. The grounds about the house were laid out in the old formal manner.

2. Fill each blank with a single word. Substitute for the word a phrase with the same meaning. Mention in each instance (1) the part of speech, (2) the kind of phrase.

1. The hotel was ——.
2. We climbed the mountain ——.
3. The —— congratulated the winner.

4. A —— man eyed us furtively.
5. The fire —— brightly.
6. We found the trail ——.
7. The tide came in ——.
8. Life before the mast is ——.
9. An aëroplane —— swiftly overhead.
10. The —— will make the address on Memorial Day.
11. A —— canoe glided by us.
12. Our nine won the game ——.
13. The —— tried to silence us.
14. My friend —— at me curiously.
15. Call the manager ——.
16. Where can I find a —— stenographer?

EXERCISE 6

(§§ 43–51, pp. 14–18)

1. Tell whether each sentence is simple, compound, or complex. If the sentence is compound, divide it into its independent clauses, and mention the simple subject (noun or pronoun) and the simple predicate (verb or verb-phrase) of each clause.

If the sentence is complex, divide it into the main (independent) and the subordinate clause, and tell whether the latter is used as an adjective or as an adverb.

1. Malaga possessed a brave and numerous garrison. 2. The yeoman returned to the headquarters of the allies, which were established under a venerable oak. 3. In the hedgerows might be found families of wrens. 4. A knight might use a mace or battle axe at pleasure, but the dagger was a prohibited weapon. 5. In one Massachusetts village a large party was invited to meet us. 6. Two hundred had already assembled, and others were fast coming in. 7. Art's deathless dreams lay veiled by many a vein of Parian stone. 8. A man's inability to moderate and control his passions I call servitude. 9. Before the entrance the Templar wound his horn loudly, for the rain began to descend with great violence. 10. The place was thronged with Indians, who came crowding in to see us. 11. The crowd was rapidly melting away. 12. As we were crowding together over a lower intervening hill, I heard Reynal and Raymond shouting to me from the left.

13. A flotilla of small sailboats came alongside for freight and baggage. 14. Her brothers were the craggy hills, her sisters larchen trees. — KEATS. 15. The family room looked very small and very mean, and

the downward staircase looked very narrow and very crooked. **16.** We must now take leave of Arcadia, and those amiable people practising the rural virtues there, and travel back to London. **17.** When I returned to the drawing room, I found the company seated round the fire. **18.** The deepest thing in our nature is this dumb region of the heart in which we dwell alone with our willingnesses and our unwillingnesses, our faiths and our fears. — W. James. **19.** It was dark, for the banks and bushes intercepted the light of the harvest moon. **20.** The power had been placed in the hands of the Norman nobility by the Battle of Hastings, and it had been used with no moderate hand.

2. Divide the compound complex sentences into their coördinate clauses. Tell whether each of these clauses, when standing alone, is a simple or a complex sentence.

1. Each knight repaired to his post; and at the head of the few followers whom they were able to muster, they awaited the threatened assault. **2.** Look out once more, and tell me if they yet advance. **3.** Few of the defenders escaped into the castle — the shrieks and cries which you hear tell the fate of the others. **4.** The notes of all our birds and fowls please me, without one exception. I should not, indeed, think of keeping a goose in a cage, that I might hang him up in the parlor for the sake of his melody; but a goose upon a common, or in a farmyard, is no bad performer. — Cowper.

EXERCISE 7

(§§ 53–79, pp. 19–27)

1. Point out all the common nouns and all the proper nouns in Exercise 6. Mention all the examples of personification.

2. Point out all the abstract, all the collective, and all the compound nouns in Exercise 6.

3. Make a list containing thirty nouns, ten in each of the three genders. Use each of these nouns in a sentence.

4. Write ten sentences, each containing a noun of common gender.

5. Write sentences containing the masculine forms corresponding to the feminine forms in this list, and the feminine forms corresponding to the masculine: —

postmaster, empress, lord, niece, waiter, bull, queen, godmother, administrator, lion, landlady, foreman, heir, manservant, mother-in-law, sister, stepson, hen, widower, hero, bride, shepherd, duke.

6. Mention the gender and the number of each noun. Tell whether the gender is shown by form, by meaning, or by both. When possible, give the plural of each noun that is singular, and the singular of each noun that is plural.

1. The shipping amounts to more than two hundred sail. — Macaulay. 2. Go, for they call you, shepherd, from the hill. — Arnold. 3. Prudence is the virtue of the senses. — Emerson. 4. O Hamlet, thou hast cleft my heart in twain. 5. Time is money. 6. One beast stood gravely twitching his ears at me as I went by. 7. Be patient then, dear Laura. 8. He was a gracious master, a trusty ally, a terrible enemy. 9. With him came his wife, a comely young woman, and their son, a little fellow of four. 10. Pray, sir, what says the "Postman" from Vienna? 11. O Banquo! Banquo! Our royal master's murdered! 12. He did not deserve the name of pedlar at all: he was a travelling merchant. 13. An enormous gray hare came jumping along, and seated himself within fifty yards to look at us.

14. Nothing could be seen except three or four large curlew. — Parkman. 15. He stealthily moved toward the wagons, as if he were approaching a band of buffalo. 16. He had a pair of horns, twisted like a ram's. 17. Justice, most gracious duke! O grant me justice! 18. Poor soul! his eyes are red as fire with weeping. — Shakspere. 19. At last the cow made a sudden plunge and ran off. 20. Mrs. Proudie's own maid, Mrs. Draper, came to him. 21. Every large country house became a fortress. 22. The czarina languidly acknowledged our applause. 23. The long feathers of the prairie cock fluttered from the crown of his head. 24. Going one morning to see my traps, I found in one of them a large old he-goat. 25. There is a mail come in to-day with letters dated Hague, April the 19th. Prince Eugene was then returned thither from Amsterdam. He sets out from Brussels on Tuesday. — Steele.

7. Write sentences in which the following words, letters, or figures are used in the plural number: —

ox, mouse, country, Shirley, talisman, 8, m, monkey, dynamo, hero, shelf, mother-in-law, Mr. Ripley, Master Ripley, Miss Ripley, deer, Japanese, crisis, gymnasium, fish, twelve, 12, cherub, ice, formula, sail, banjo, life, May, latch, Chief Justice, commander-in-chief, appendix, pailful, Colonel Austin, Rogers, basis, was, sky, Norman, solo.

8. Write sentences in which the following nouns are used in the singular number: —

heathen, data, genera, pence, thieves, analyses, tableaux, Sioux, dice, strata, spies, brethren, cumuli, alumnæ, alumni, radii, banditti, editors-in-chief, Dutchmen, stepsons.

EXERCISE 8

(§§ 81–113, pp. 28–38)

1. Mention all the nouns in Exercise 7, 6, that are in the nominative case, and give the construction (or syntax) of each, — as subject, predicate nominative, vocative (or nominative of direct address), exclamatory nominative, or nominative in apposition.[1]

2. Point out all the nouns below in the possessive (or genitive) case, and parse them according to the model in § 114.

3. Parse the nouns in the objective case, according to the model in § 114. Tell the particular construction in each instance, — direct object, predicate objective, indirect object, etc.

1. Hush'd was the revellers' sound. 2. Dorothea's eyes were full of laughter. 3. Pope has given us two pretty poems under Homer's titles. — Cowper. 4. Perhaps I am occupied an hour and a half, perhaps three hours. 5. The book will do them no harm. 6. I have not seen him these twenty years. 7. The hot cinder burns a child the first time he seizes it; it burns him the second time; it burns him the third time; it burns him every time; and he very soon learns not to touch the hot cinder. — Spencer. 8. Thus in his father's sight the boy grew up. 9. The picture must be an original of somebody's: and if not of Gainsborough's — whose? — FitzGerald. 10. A friend in Edinburgh sent me down Mr. Ricardo's book.

11. 'T is now six months since Lady Teazle made me the happiest of men. — Sheridan. 12. This exercise gives a man all the pleasure of boxing, without the blows. 13. I can hardly think you my master. 14. This humor creates him no enemies. — Addison. 15. He creates Lucius proconsul. — Shakspere. 16. I must ask my child forgiveness. — Shakspere. 17. Never call a true piece of gold a counterfeit. — Shakspere. 18. Give me your hand on the bargain. 19. It cost us a month or six

[1] Or parse the nominatives according to the models in § 114.

weeks' time to perform this voyage. — DEFOE. 20. Much the most striking incident in Burns's life is his journey to Edinburgh. 21. He left the estate with ten thousand pounds' debt upon it. — STEELE. 22. She smiled an almost wild smile. 23. It seemed to Mr. Esmond that the young prince was not unlike Castlewood.

24. The browsing camels' bells are tinkling. 25. I don't care a bit about that. 26. Thy soul was like a star and dwelt apart. — WORDSWORTH. 27. On the day following, we overtook Kearsley's wagons. 28. I saw a tall peak rising among the woods. 29. I gave Roberts' boy my rifle. 30. You tell me that "John Gilpin" made you laugh tears. — COWPER. 31. In another village I became acquainted with one of its most useful servants, the schoolmaster, who has a passion for music and is organist of a church. 32. The train was two hours late. 33. I spent a week at Sir Edward's. 34. Raymond's sister stayed a month. 35. I came here a week ago, and am paying my usual visits at the Brownes' and at Airy's. — FITZGERALD. 36. I wrote the English captain's widow a full account of all my adventures. 37. Be true, O Clio, to thy hero's name. 38. Methinks an Æsop's fable you repeat. 39. The Muses' empire is restored again. — DRYDEN. 40. When Shakspere's plan is understood, most of the criticisms of Rymer and Voltaire vanish away. — JOHNSON.

4. Examine the nouns in the possessive case in 3, and tell which of the possessives might be replaced by an *of*-phrase. Do you see any reason for preference?

5. Write sentences containing the possessive singular of —

Sir William Crookes, Brown and Sewall (a firm), Horace, Agnes, godmother, sister-in-law, rock, Max, William, Mr. Williams, Socrates, Etna Match Company, United Shoe Stores, Frances, Francis, Æneas, John Wills, N. P. Willis, William Collins.

6. Write sentences containing the possessive plural of —

deer, horse, Frenchman, Italian, musician, waitress, Mussulman, rook, ship, fireman, laundryman, major general, Mr. Moss, Miss Schurz, sheep, painter, strawberry, chimney, beau, soprano, hero, telegrapher, seamstress, whale, stonecutter.

7. In which of the sentences that you have written (under 5 and 6) would it be possible to substitute an *of*-phrase for the possessive? In which of them (if any) would this phrase be preferable? Why?

EXERCISE 9

(§§ 92–112, pp. 33–38)

1. Write fifteen sentences, each containing a transitive verb and its direct object (§§ 94–95).

2. Substitute a pronoun for each noun in the objective case.

3. Write ten sentences containing both a direct object and a predicate objective (§ 100).

4. Use in sentences fifteen of the verbs in the list in § 104, each with both a direct and an indirect object.

5. For each indirect object, substitute *to* with an object. Change the order, if necessary.

6. Write ten sentences, each containing a cognate object (§ 110).

7. Write ten sentences, each containing an adverbial objective (§ 111).

8. Write ten sentences, each containing a noun in apposition with a noun in the objective case (§ 112).

EXERCISE 10

(§§ 53–114, pp. 19–39)

Parse every noun in Exercises 1–8, according to the models in § 114.

EXERCISE 11

(§§ 115–129, pp. 40–44)

1. Parse the personal pronouns, using the models in § 166.

1. Lankaster opened the door of the ugly yet luxurious room which had been assigned him. **2.** For five long hours we clung to the rigging. **3.** He had seen the path of duty plain before him. **4.** Madame Gilliard set herself to waken the boy. **5.** We must all set our pocket watches by the clock of fate. **6.** I wish to show you, some day, a letter which Hawthorne wrote to me. **7.** He advised me to shift for myself. **8.** The baron shut himself up in his chamber. **9.** She bore herself well. **10.** In a thousand apparently humble ways men busy themselves to make some right take the place of some wrong, and they are themselves so much the better morally for it.

11. "A storm, you fool you!" replies he; "do you call that a storm? Why, it was nothing at all!" — DEFOE. **12.** I but repay a gift which I myself received. **13.** We excused ourselves and went home. **14.** He had with him both his rifle and yours. **15.** A sturdy lad from New Hampshire or Vermont, who in turn tries all the professions, who teams it, farms it, peddles, keeps a school, preaches, edits a newspaper, goes to Congress, buys a township, and so forth, in successive years, and always like a cat falls on his feet, is worth a hundred of these city dolls. — EMERSON. **16.** Send me a letter directed to me at Mr. Watcham's. **17.** Only her dog kept her company. **18.** There is certainly a very keen appetite in curiosity. It cannot stay for satisfaction. It is pressing for its necessary repast, and is without all patience. — DEFOE. **19.** I had no thought of finding Rodman there, but one look convinced me that the younger of the two men was he. **20.** No coward soul is mine.

2. Write sentences in which the personal pronoun of the first person is used as direct object, as indirect object, as predicate nominative; in the possessive singular with a noun; in the possessive singular without a noun.

3. Fill the blanks with personal pronouns of the first or the third person.

1. Mr. Richards is going to give —— girls an outing.
2. Who told you it was ——?
3. I don't believe it, between you and ——.
4. To Tom and —— was assigned the task of bringing the water.
5. The last to arrive were Bob and ——.
6. —— three were the best of friends.
7. We all thought the winner would be ——.
8. I can run faster than ——.
9. He was in a worse plight than ——.
10. Frank is of the same age as ——.
11. I am older than Frank or ——.
12. That man looks like ——.
13. Who is it? ——.
14. Florence would not be interested in such a person as ——.
15. If you were ——, would you go?
16. I like both, particularly ——.
17. All but —— two voted to camp there.

4. Write sentences in which *myself, yourself, ourselves, himself, herself, themselves* are used (1) intensively, (2) reflexively as direct object, (3) reflexively as indirect object.

EXERCISE 12

(§§ 131–142, pp. 44–47)

1. Parse the demonstratives and the indefinites. In parsing the word, tell whether it is used as a pronoun or as an adjective. If it is used as a pronoun, tell the number and the case and give the reason for the case. If it is used as an adjective, mention the substantive which it modifies.

1. Those wicked creatures yet do look well-favored. — SHAKSPERE. 2. The character of Milton was peculiarly distinguished by loftiness of speech; that of Dante by intensity of feeling. — MACAULAY. 3. This was a merry message. 4. Where are these lads? Where are these hearts? 5. Here can I sit alone, unseen by any. 6. Hostile theories correct each other. — MACAULAY. 7. He had not the same features as those of other Indians. 8. I cannot recall any form of man who is not superfluous sometimes. — EMERSON. 9. These are plain pleasures, kindly and native to us. 10. These men were thorough savages. 11. Some tender money to me; some invite me. — SHAKSPERE.

12. A universe lies beyond yon glimmering star. 13. Everything the good man said was full of affection. 14. It was impossible to make them understand anything. 15. This touched my heart a little. 16. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt. 17. Besides these things, I took all the clothes that I could find. 18. Every day at low water I went on board and brought away something or other. 19. Either will do. 20. Every one was anxious to know the hour of our departure. 21. All shouted assent. 22. I yield to none in my admiration for that heroic soul. 23. As they footed slowly up the aisle, each one took a moment's glance at the Englishman. 24. Several faltered by the way.

2. Fill each blank with a personal pronoun (§ 141).

1. Everybody brought —— golf clubs.
2. Any one may have —— money refunded if it rains.
3. We were told that each must await —— turn.
4. A person might easily miss —— way here.
5. If anybody calls, tell —— I am busy.
6. Each one of us has —— troubles.
7. The prisoners were led up, each in —— turn.
8. Every one who was present received —— money.
9. Ten carts went by, each with —— load.
10. Each of you is expected to do —— duty.

EXERCISE 13

(§§ 143–160, pp. 47–53)

1. Parse the relatives, using the models in § 166.

1. That which we are, we are. — Tennyson. 2. Whatever objections you have to make must be made now. 3. Let what is broken, so remain. 4. This has been a great trial to me, who am eloquent and free in my own tongue. — Margaret Fuller. 5. Whoso loveth instruction loveth knowledge: but he that hateth reproof is brutish. 6. We little anticipated such eagerness of hospitality as we were met with. 7. He once more found a friend, who sheltered him in his own house. 8. A hero of fiction that never existed is just as valuable to me as a hero of history that existed a thousand years since. — Irving. 9. There is nothing that a very young man can write that will not be full of faults.

10. This is one of the Doctor's most intimate friends, with whom he dines once every week. 11. Never did I see any one whose brow the world hurried and crowded so to crown, who had so little vanity and so much pure humility. 12. Except in cases of necessity, which are rare, leave your friend to learn unpleasant truths from his enemies. — Holmes. 13. You need not get up a rebellion against what I say. 14. His hair, which was black and straight, was not very long. 15. Whatever were his reasons, it is certain that he declined the offer. 16. What honors, if any, were paid to his remains is uncertain. 17. The summit of this larger mound is said to have been crowned with a temple, in which was a colossal statue. 18. The young fellow whom I have so often mentioned was a little free in his remarks.

19. They were attached to one of the Santa Fe companies, whose wagons were crowded together on the banks above. 20. I have an excellent scheme on hand which I cannot tell you of now. 21. What attracts my attention shall have it. 22. He is a good man who can receive a gift well. 23. There was no cavalier in the army whose loss would have been so deeply deplored by the commander. 24. The death of Maxixca was deeply regretted by the troops, who lost in him a true and most efficient ally. 25. I 'll tell you what the Professor said to the poet the other day. 26. The rapidity with which ideas grow old in our memories is in a direct ratio to the squares of their importance. — Holmes. 27. Give my respects to Madam Emerson, whose Concord face I should be glad to see here this summer. — Thoreau. 28. Write a long novel, one that we can dive into with confidence, and not feel that we are to strike bottom at the first plunge. — C. D. Warner. 29. This was the oddest adventure that could have happened. 30. By five o'clock we were at a little village whose name I forget.

2. Point out the descriptive and the restrictive relatives in 1 (above).

3. Write ten sentences, each containing a descriptive relative; ten sentences, each containing a restrictive relative.

4. Fill the blanks with relatives. In the first eight sentences, at least, use *who* or *whom*.

1. I know the man —— you talked with.
2. Every one —— you know is out of town.
3. The urchin —— we paid was not the one —— brought the message.
4. Ask the policeman —— stands at the door.
5. The policeman —— I asked could not tell me.
6. I have seen the governor, ——, I believe, will sign the pardon.
7. I have seen the man —— I believed to be the governor.
8. Did you give the letter to the messenger —— called?
9. That newspaper —— has the largest circulation is not necessarily the best.
10. He gave me the directions —— I needed.
11. He gave me such directions —— I needed.
12. He gave me —— directions I needed.
13. Every child —— saw the puppies wanted one.
14. Did you notice the picture —— your brother was looking at?
15. I gave a lump of sugar to Tom's horse, —— is very fond of sweets.
16. This is by the same author —— your book.
17. The horse —— I wanted was not in the stable.
18. All —— I am I owe to my father.
19. Here is the article to —— I referred.
20. Here is the article —— I referred to.

5. Supply the relatives that are "understood" (§ 150).

1. He is the most accurate accountant I know.
2. I have lost every dollar I own.
3. Every boy I saw was barefoot.
4. A new hat is the only thing I need.
5. Did you like the first selection I played?
6. The book I want is on the top shelf.
7. You may have all the apples you wish.
8. You may ask anybody you like.
9. All the people I knew were out of town.
10. The first person I saw was John.

EXERCISE 14

(§§ 161–165, pp. 53–54)

Parse the interrogative pronouns, mentioning gender, number, person, and case. If the interrogative word is an adjective, tell what noun it limits.

1. Who hath the office? 2. "You have done what?" said he. 3. Whose was it? 4. Which means she to deceive, father or mother? 5. What news on the Rialto? 6. What advantage do you expect to gain? 7. Who knows what disaster may arise? 8. To what do you refer? 9. About what did you pay? 10. Who was that silly body? 11. For whom were you inquiring? 12. From which direction is the wind blowing? 13. "What is history," said Napoleon, "but a fable agreed upon?" 14. Which debt must I pay first? 15. What is the hardest task in the world? To think. — EMERSON. 16. By what witchcraft were ye brought hither? 17. In whose interest are you acting? 18. "Very good, Mr. Constable," says the justice; "what must we do now?" 19. Who would have thought that the clangorous noise of a smith's hammers should have given the first rise to music? — STEELE.

EXERCISE 15

(§§ 161–163, pp. 53–54)

Fill each blank with *who* or *whom*, as the construction may require. Is the pronoun relative or interrogative?

1. —— do you wish to see?
2. Here is a boy —— wishes to speak to you.
3. Give the key to the man —— I pointed out to you.
4. —— did you say this parcel was for?
5. —— called me?
6. I ran into a young man —— was looking at a shop window.
7. I ran into a young man —— I had not noticed.
8. —— can you recommend?
9. The conductor, —— I knew, was very courteous.
10. The conductor, —— was impatient to start, looked angry.
11. —— do you think will win?
12. —— did you think I was?
13. He asked me —— I was.
14. —— did you give the letter to?
15. —— shall we ask?

EXERCISE 16

(§§ 115–166, pp. 40–54)

Point out each pronoun; tell to what class it belongs, and give its construction. Do the same in Exercises 1, 3, and 4.

1. One can think in three seconds what cannot be written down in thirty. 2. The two young men, regarding each other with looks of sullen displeasure, drew off in different directions. 3. Every one scrambled up again. 4. Truly it demands something godlike in him who has cast off the common motives of humanity and has ventured to trust himself for a taskmaster. — Emerson. 5. That morning's march was one not easily to be forgotten. 6. What is there in old Dante's face that is missing in Goethe's? 7. What I do and what I dream include thee.

8. Mrs. Proudie had no doubt intended to have Mr. Chadwick all to herself. 9. Open, locks, whoever knocks! — Shakspere. 10. Which is the way? 11. It is a beauteous evening, calm and free. 12. Where lies the land to which yon ship would go? 13. What little remainder of corn had been in the bag was all devoured by the rats. 14. She would risk nothing. 15. Our conductor soon led us out of the lane and across country.

EXERCISE 17

(§§ 167–187, pp. 55–60)

1. Point out every adjective. Tell whether it is descriptive or definitive (limiting) (§§ 167–169), and mention the substantive to which it belongs. If the adjective can be compared, give its three degrees of comparison.

2. Point out the comparatives and the superlatives. Mention any superlatives used for emphasis (§ 199).

1. The porter gave me a scornful look. 2. A tumble-down shed stood in the hollow. 3. The American Indians are becoming extinct. 4. I gave the boy a copper coin. 5. A political change, silent and gradual, but of the highest importance, was in daily progress. 6. The most ancient heavens, through Thee, are fresh and strong. — Wordsworth. 7. Did you ever see an uglier face? 8. Napoleon was a man of endless resources. 9. He cut it short. 10. Sleep, solemn and profound, dwelt over the lonely islands. 11. There was a dead silence through our camp. 12. Discretion points out the noblest ends to us, and pursues the most proper and laudable methods of attaining them. — Addison.

13. When I awoke again, there was a fresh damp smell in the air, a gray twilight involved the prairie, and above its eastern verge was a streak of cold red sky. **14.** My thoughts are ever of you, my dearest wife. **15.** The recurrence of precisely the same circumstances brought up precisely the same idea. **16.** I have always tried to be gentle with the most hopeless cases. — HOLMES. **17.** One of these young brains is like a bunch of India crackers. **18.** Striking his iron heel into his weary steed, he plunged headlong into the thickest of the press.

19. As Montezuma gazed on the ferocious features, rendered more horrible by death, he seemed to read in them the dark lineaments of the destined destroyers of his house. **20.** I suppose each belligerent nation has a plan of the other's fortified places. **21.** Some wondering child upon the bank would stare after us until we turned the corner. **22.** The roofs seemed to tumble uphill one upon another, in the oddest disorder. **23.** In the middle of all this felicity, one blow from unseen Providence unhinged me at once. **24.** It is given to few men to be poets.

3. Write five sentences containing descriptive adjectives; five containing definitive (limiting) adjectives.

4. Write sentences containing demonstrative, indefinite, relative, and interrogative adjectives.

5. Write sentences in which the indefinite article is directly followed by —

orifice, haul, hotel, honor, youth, eulogy, apple, histrionic, help, useful, hopeful, heap, humorous, humiliating, usurper, hypocrisy, excellent, European, humane, human.

EXERCISE 18

(§§ 188–197, pp. 61–64)

1. Parse each adverb as directed in § 206.

1. Wearily and anxiously hour after hour passed away. **2.** Sometimes, but rarely, one may be caught making the same speech twice over, and yet be held blameless. **3.** Little did the Bazins know how much they served us. **4.** Kine, and horses, and little humorous donkeys, browse together in the meadows, and come down in troops to the riverside to drink. **5.** His caution was so seasonable, and his advice so good, that I could not but be very well pleased with his proposal. **6.** I am heartily tired of Liverpool. **7.** I was perfectly convulsed with laughter. **8.** Never did old bachelor come to such a loving home.

9. You swim well enough to reach the shore. 10. Deep asleep he seemed, yet all awake. 11. Soon he plied both whip and spur. 12. The chief in silence strode before. 13. I won't talk about these things now. 14. Lively emotions very commonly do not strike us full in front, but obliquely from the side. 15. They were almost starved for want of provisions. 16. I know and see too well, when not voluntarily blind, the speedy limits of persons called high and worthy. — EMERSON.

2. Form an adverb of manner from each of the following adjectives. Use each adverb in a sentence. Tell what it modifies.

rapid, useful, sullen, rich, elegant, savage, vivid, fierce, dull, pleasant, bright, delicate, handsome, false, cynical, hopeful, jubilant, smooth, discordant.

3. Fill each blank with an adverb of degree modifying the adjective or the adverb.

1. The sky was —— cloudy.
2. Felix was —— tired that he could scarcely walk.
3. This plank is not heavy —— for your bridge.
4. You can do it —— more easily the second time.
5. The cistern was —— full.
6. The distance is —— great for walking.
7. I will write —— often as I can.
8. Robert is not —— particular as you are.
9. The hill was —— steeper than we expected.
10. That is —— bad.
11. Return —— soon as possible.

EXERCISE 19

(§§ 193–195, pp. 62–63)

1. Point out the relative adverbs, and mention the subordinate clause introduced by each. Tell whether each adverb expresses time, place, or manner.

1. Wherever sorrow is, relief would be. 2. The terrible day wore on, without any lightening of the tempest, till noon, when the wind suddenly fell to a calm. 3. As we read in these delightful volumes of the Tatler and the Spectator, the past age returns, the England of our ancestors is revivified. — THACKERAY. 4. It is an odd thing how happily two people, if there are two, can live in a place where they have no acquaintance.

5. He was let loose among the woods as soon as he was able to ride on horseback. 6. As long as I hear truth, I am bathed by a beautiful element and am not conscious of any limits to my nature. — EMERSON.

7. Whenever I return to Salem, I feel how dark my life would be without the light that you shed upon it. — HAWTHORNE. 8. As I was sitting after dinner in my elbow-chair, I took up Homer. 9. All our days are so unprofitable while they pass, that 't is wonderful where or when we ever get anything of this which we call wisdom, poetry, virtue. — EMERSON. 10. It was not long before they brought the men in. 11. As I passed through Cheapside, I saw crowds of people turning down towards the Bank. 12. The very next day after this wall was finished, I had almost had all my labors overthrown at once. 13. Whenever a mind is simple and receives a divine wisdom, old things pass away. — EMERSON.

2. Point out the interrogative adverbs, and tell what each modifies.

1. Why do I see my people here in arms against the palace of my fathers? 2. Where do we find ourselves? 3. How canst thou become such a hypocrite? 4. Whither are you bound, my lad? 5. Whence comes this terrible summons? 6. When shall we three meet again? 7. How often must we learn this lesson? 8. Why are you always late?

3. Write ten sentences containing relative adverbs; ten containing interrogative adverbs.

EXERCISE 20

(§§ 196–201, pp. 63–65)

1. Write sentences containing either the comparative or the superlative of the following adjectives or adverbs: —

well, slowly, active, soft, late, ill, swift, respectable, sudden, gently, good, much, high, bad, far, important, cheerfully, able, rare, rarely, low, artificial.

2. Point out the comparatives and superlatives. Tell whether each is an adjective or an adverb.

1. The more business he got, the greater seemed to be his power of getting at its pith and marrow. 2. A quainter corner than the corner where the Doctor lived was not to be found in London. 3. The most barefaced action seeks to veil itself under some show of decency. 4. It is the truest word ever spoken. 5. I ought to love Salem better than

I do. 6. At Appledore, one of the larger of these islands, I have spent many happy days. 7. Which of us has gained the most? 8. The most wonderful climber I ever saw was the trumpet-vine of the West. 9. And now I saw how easy it was for the providence of God to make the most miserable condition that mankind could be in worse. — DEFOE. 10. He felt sure that Mr. Slope had some deeper motive.

EXERCISE 21

(§§ 202–205, pp. 65–66)

1. Write five sentences in which cardinal numerals are adjectives, five in which they are nouns. Use the same numerals in the ordinal form as adjectives, as nouns.

2. Write five sentences, each containing a numeral adverb; five containing an adverbial phrase that includes a numeral.

EXERCISE 22

(§§ 207–213, pp. 67–69)

1. Point out the verbs and verb-phrases. Tell whether each is transitive or intransitive. Tell which are copulative (linking); which are auxiliary. Mention any examples of the copula.

1. The head gardener opened the gate for me. 2. The country behind him was a wilderness; and soon the country before him became equally desolate. 3. I have studied eight or nine wise words to speak to you. — SHAKSPERE. 4. The gale, unimpeded, again roared among our shrouds, and the sea broke over us. 5. By this time he and his two horses had engrossed the attention of the whole crowd. 6. He had deposited a large well-filled bag, made of skins, on the pavement. 7. We had run full tilt into a fog bank apparently packed with ships, and were saving ourselves and them by guesswork while stopping the way on our boat. 8. Discontent was spreading fast through all the ranks of the party. 9. My mother would have denounced my day-dreams sternly enough, had she known of their existence.

10. Hilda had been waiting an hour in the rain. 11. The contest was sharp. 12. Her eyes grew wild and strange. 13. You will have heard, perhaps, that I wrote to my mother. 14. Ricker became pale as death. 15. He was the son of a merchant in London, who — like Rowe — from small beginnings had raised himself to the highest honors of the city. 16. My friend Sir Roger sat very silent. 17. Good breeding shows itself most where, to any ordinary eye, it appears the least. — ADDISON.

18. Mowbray Donne wrote that he sent you the fragments I had saved and transcribed of Morton's letters. 19. The new heir had at once made himself an exceedingly respectable member of society. 20. The lad seems honest enough. 21. You may see me sitting on the floor of my verandah haranguing and being harangued by squatting chiefs on a question of a road. — STEVENSON. 22. Lothair seemed surprised and a little agitated.

2. Frame twenty sentences, each containing a verb-phrase. Use the auxiliaries mentioned in § 208. Let some of the sentences be interrogative.

3. Make a list of twenty verbs that are transitive in one sense, intransitive in another (§ 210). Use these verbs in sentences.

4. Illustrate the absolute use of transitive verbs by framing ten sentences (§ 211).

5. Make a list of six copulative (or linking) verbs (§ 212). Use them in sentences. Frame sentences in which the same verbs are not copulative (§ 213).

6. Use the copula (§ 212) in twenty sentences, several of which shall illustrate its use in verb-phrases.

EXERCISE 23

(§§ 216–223, pp. 70–73)

1. Write ten sentences in each of which a regular verb is used in the past tense; ten, in each of which an irregular verb is used in the past tense.

2. Construct sentences in which the past tense of each of the following verbs is used: *drink, lie, sow, get, wake, dwell, sing, pay, bid, light, bereave, build, ride, hang, swim, lay, split, shrink, slay, wring, weave, thrive, spin, tread, shake, burst, slink, dive, flee, fly, swing, wet, fling, kneel, let, chide.*

3. Point out all the verbs (except the copula and auxiliaries) in Exercise 22, 1, and conjugate them in the present and the past tense. Tell which are regular and which are irregular. Account for the person and number.

EXERCISE 24

(§§ 224–231, pp. 73–75)

1. Write five sentences illustrating the impersonal use of *it;* five in which *it* is used as an expletive.

2. Fill each blank with *am, is,* or *are.*

1. You and I —— mistaken.
2. Either you —— mistaken or I ——.
3. Neither of us —— mistaken.
4. Both of us —— mistaken.
5. Economics —— difficult for me.
6. A number of children —— hanging about.
7. The number of children in this street —— remarkable.
8. The set of six —— ten dollars.
9. The contents of the box —— missing.
10. His one end and aim in life —— to make money.
11. A series of accidents —— reported in to-night's paper.
12. He is one of the ablest mechanics who —— to be found.
13. Three weeks —— a short vacation.
14. The crowd —— enormous.
15. The crowd —— fighting among themselves.
16. A woman with four or five children —— coming up the street.
17. Half the oranges —— spoiled.
18. Neither physics nor mathematics —— required.
19. Smith's "Reflections" —— dull reading.
20. Is it Latin or geometry that —— hard?
21. Do you think that Latin and geometry —— hard?
22. A collection of six hundred coins —— for sale.
23. One or two boys —— in sight.
24. A boy or two —— in sight.
25. John, together with Charles and Mary, —— to be promoted.
26. I am one of those men who —— never good at games.
27. Neither Jane nor Emma —— at home.
28. The captain, as well as the crew, —— safe.
29. No iron or copper —— found in this region.

3. Make a list of ten collective nouns. Use them in sentences (1) with a singular verb, (2) with a plural verb. Explain the difference in meaning.

4. Use the relative *who* in ten sentences in which the antecedent is in the first or the second person.

EXERCISE 25

(§§ 232–237, pp. 76–78)

1. Explain the use of *will* and *shall*.

1. Fourfold to the poor man he shall return. 2. What shall you do to me when I ridicule Rex? 3. The cough is a mere nothing; it will not kill me. I shall not die of a cough. 4. "Come," I said with decision, "we will go back." 5. Here shall the traveller stay his weary feet. 6. "Oh, you are ungrateful to our Mother Earth!" rejoined I. "Come what may, I never will forget her." 7. There will be no peril if we are prompt and firm. 8. You shall see the little paper after dinner, if you care to look through it. 9. No, Teackle, there will be no delay until to-morrow. Mr. Willits has forfeited every claim to being my guest, and I will fight him here and now. 10. Won't you let me help you on with your cloak?

11. I will tell Wills to send me the proof, and will try to show you what I mean when I shall have gone over it carefully. — DICKENS. 12. I shall be glad to think of your all being at home again, as I suppose you will be soon. 13. All the strange incidents that happen in my journeys I shall be sure to acquaint you with. — GRAY. 14. I shall be happy to see you. 15. We shall dine at one o'clock. 16. I fear you will have too busy a day on Monday. 17. Will no one tell me what she sings? 18. I will confess that I thought your letter somewhat tardy. 19. Will you tell Mary that I have had a letter from Frith? 20. Full particulars of the interview shall be duly announced.

21. We shall reach York on Saturday. 22. Yonder, over mountains and valley, lies Rome. Shall you return thither in the autumn? 23. A land of slaves shall ne'er be mine. 24. Shall we see you before you leave Paris? 25. Shall I expect you to-morrow morning? 26. Will you come and breakfast with me on Tuesday? 27. This letter shall go to-morrow. 28. We shall soon hear what the Dutch say. 29. I'll go to sleep; 't is past twelve. 30. What will this come to? 31. I will not be their governor. 32. I think I'll put on my waistcoat to-day. Shall I? 33. "Now, Mr. Gresham," said she, "before you go any further you shall listen to me. Will you listen to me for a moment without interrupting me?" 34. "At least," Sir Robert said, "you will be civil to her, if she comes, I hope." "Of course I will," answered Guy, laughing. 35. When shall you have any rosebuds? 36. They shall listen to me! I will save them! Justice and good sense shall triumph! 37. I must and will root out my prejudice against him. 38. If my friend thought me witty before, he shall think me ten times more witty hereafter; where I joked once, I will joke five times, and for one sensible remark I will send him a dozen. — COWPER.

2. Fill each blank with *will* or *shall*.

1. I —— send you a ticket if you wish.
2. We —— return to New York for the holidays.
3. They —— never forgive you.
4. You —— see the pageant if I can arrange it.
5. If you are in Boston next month, you —— see the pageant.
6. On receipt of this order you —— proceed to break camp.
7. I —— be glad to lend you the money.
8. I —— gladly lend you the money.
9. You —— persist in leaving that door open.
10. Robert —— arrive next week.
11. Morrison —— hear of your treachery if it costs me my life.
12. Morrison —— hear of your treachery if we do not take care.
13. I —— have to overlook the insult, I suppose.
14. We —— be late if we do not hurry.
15. I —— have to go now.
16. We —— be glad to hear from you.
17. The audience —— please not applaud.
18. If Henry leaves town, we —— miss him.
19. I —— not accept the invitation if I can help it.
20. I —— not accept your apology, even if you go on your knees.

3. Write declarative sentences, using *will* or *shall* in the first person (singular or plural) to express a threat, a promise, resolution, consent, desire, determination, simple futurity.

4. Fill the blanks in the following questions with *will* or *shall*. Write sentences (using *will* or *shall*) in answer.

1. —— you need me any longer?
2. —— we invite him to dine with us?
3. —— you do as I say, or —— I make you?
4. —— I go to the door?
5. —— James go to the door?
6. —— you go to the door, James?
7. —— you be angry if I tell you my reason?
8. —— we encourage such recklessness?
9. —— you forgive me?
10. —— I forgive you? Of course I ——.
11. —— Richard and Herbert please come to the desk?
12. —— they be allowed to make that noise?
13. —— we proceed to business?
14. —— he try to prevent the parade?
15. —— the parade be given up if it rains?

EXERCISE 26

(§§ 238–241, pp. 78–79)

1. Name all the complete (or compound) tenses and explain their formation.

1. It had been discovered that Dundee had paid visits to the Castle. 2. I am just come to town. — GRAY. 3. In another week the carpenters will have finished their work. 4. Having proceeded thus far without accident, I began to take heart. 5. Many already have fled to the forest, and lurk on its outskirts. 6. I 've travelled like a comet. 7. The heath wore the appearance of an installment of night which had taken up its place before its astronomical hour was come. — HARDY. 8. You have read the tragedy he has just finished, have n't you?

2. Construct ten sentences in which the verbs in Exercise 23, 2, are used in the perfect (present perfect) tense.

3. Turn the verbs in these sentences into the pluperfect (past perfect) tense; into the future perfect tense. Write sentences in which the same verbs are used as perfect (or phrasal past) participles; as perfect (or past) infinitives.

EXERCISE 27

(§§ 242–250, pp. 79–84)

1. Tell whether each verb is in the active or the passive voice.

2. If the verb is active, change it to the passive, and make such other changes as may be necessary. If the verb is passive, change it to the active.

3. Conjugate each verb in the tense in which it occurs.

1. The only spot of bright color in the room was made by the hair of a tall maiden of seventeen or eighteen. 2. The mutiny was at once suppressed, and the leading mutineers were sent aboard the armed vessel. 3. The earl received him with the most friendly cordiality. 4. Tressilian and his attendants were stopped and questioned repeatedly by sentinels. 5. The young cavalier was, in the meanwhile, guided to the waterside by the pensioner. 6. The opposing parties eyed each other with looks of eager hatred and scorn; but they were restrained by the strict commands of their leaders, and overawed, perhaps, by the presence of an armed band of unusual strength.

7. The nobles and courtiers who had attended the queen on her pleasure expedition, were invited, with royal hospitality, to a splendid banquet in the hall of the palace. 8. This island is separated from the mainland by a scarcely perceptible creek, oozing its way through a wilderness of reeds. 9. I immediately kindled a fire and subjected every portion of the parchment to a glowing heat. 10. An indescribable uneasiness possessed me. 11. To the ill-starred Burns was given the power of making man's life more venerable, but that of wisely guiding his own life was not given. — CARLYLE.

12. We view the world with our own eyes, each of us; and we make from within us the world we see. — THACKERAY. 13. My heart is turned to stone; I strike it and it hurts my hand. — SHAKSPERE. 14. Nothing remarkable was ever accomplished in a prosaic mood. — THOREAU. 15. A weary heart gets no gladness out of sunshine. — THACKERAY. 16. The minister was informed that he was a prisoner. 17. The bleak wind of March made her tremble and shiver. — HOOD.

4. Rewrite the following sentences, changing the form of the verbs from active to passive, or from passive to active. Notice the effect upon subjects and objects.

1. Suddenly he was roused by the sound of footsteps. 2. The spell was broken by a sound of carriage wheels. 3. The rights of the savage have seldom been properly appreciated or respected by the white man. 4. A general assault was resolved on for the next day. 5. The inn was beset by robbers. 6. Man cannot fix his eye on the sun. 7. I received your letter yesterday evening. 8. The messenger was arrested, interrogated, and searched; and the letters were found.

9. Then in the golden weather the maize was husked. 10. The slope was strewn with lopped branches. 11. As a neighbor was lately ploughing in a dry chalky field, far removed from any water, he turned out a water rat. 12. I have just been ordered on a journey by the powers that be. 13. Their wretchedness excites rather horror than pity. 14. Swallows are seen later at Oxford than elsewhere.

5. Write ten sentences, each containing a predicate nominative used after a passive (§ 248).

6. Use each of the following verbs in both the active and the passive of the past, the future, and the perfect (or present perfect): — *send*, *bring*, *teach*, *get*, *set*, *lay*, *leave*, *find*, *forget*.

7. Use each of the verbs in § 104 in the active voice of the past tense with both a direct and an indirect object. Change to the passive.

EXERCISE 28

(§§ 251–256, pp. 84–86)

1. Point out all the progressive and all the emphatic verb-phrases. Mention the tense and voice of each. Note any instances where *do* and *did* are not emphatic.

1. Nature never did betray the heart that loved her. — Wordsworth. 2. The white breakers were rushing to the shore. 3. She had told me that she never could believe that the earth was moving constantly. 4. We English gentlemen hate the name of a lie; but how often do we find public men who believe each other's words? — Trollope. 5. Do not forget us. 6. Don't give way to laziness, and do proceed with that play. 7. Gaily the plume of the horseman was dancing.

8. Addison was fast hastening to his grave. 9. The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool. — Shakspere. 10. Mr. Millbank did not seem to be conscious of his daughter's silence. 11. I have been suffering from another kind of malady. 12. I am going off, I don't know where or how far, to ponder about I don't know what. 13. I am settling down to work again.

2. Write sentences in which the verb *sing* is used in the progressive form of the present, past, future, perfect (present perfect), pluperfect (past perfect), and future perfect tenses of the active voice.

3. Write ten questions containing some form of *do* (or *did*).

EXERCISE 29

(§§ 257–281, pp. 86–93)

Point out all the verbs in the imperative or the subjunctive mood. Tell the subjects of the imperatives and explain the forms and uses of the subjunctives.

1. Set the triple crown upon his head. 2. Though this be madness, yet there 's method in 't. 3. Would all were well! but that will never be. — Shakspere. 4. Learn to admire rightly. — Thackeray. 5. Be his banner unconquered, resistless his spear. — Scott. 6. Wear your learning, like your watch, in a private pocket, and do not pull it out and strike it merely to show you have one. — Chesterfield. 7. This, could it always succeed, were the true method of destroying the enemies of a state. — Goldsmith. 8. Heavens defend me from that Welsh fairy,

lest he transform me! — Shakspere. 9. Pray consider in what way you can do it. 10. Be of good cheer, youth. 11. Had I mother or sister, I should hesitate to let her embark in that ship.

12. Did these prejudices prevail only among the meanest and lowest of the people, perhaps they might be excused. — Goldsmith. 13. I will not show my face until my husband bid me. 14. God be with you! 15. Do come! 16. Say what I would, the boys thought they knew better. 17. So go on and prosper. 18. Come what may, I am resolved to open the box. 19. They shiver in their loneliness, be it on a mountain top or in a dungeon. 20. Go, shepherd, and untie the wattled cotes. 21. Accept my thanks for the pleasure you have given me. 22. O let my weakness have an end.

23. Beware Macduff! 24. Short be my speech! 25. God and fair winds direct him to his home! 26. Well, heaven send Anne Page no worse fortune! 27. Peace be with their ashes. 28. The gods give us joy! 29. Have patience. 30. Don't come back too soon. Take time and get well restored. 31. Let me congratulate you on your marriage. 32. May you decide with wisdom. 33. Be still, my soul! 34. Pray heaven I be deceived in you! 35. Let your own discretion be your tutor. 36. Let not Ambition mock their useful toil. — Gray. 37. Waste not, want not.

EXERCISE 30

(§§ 267–281, pp. 89–93)

1. Fill each blank with a verb in the appropriate form.

1. I would n't touch that if I —— you.
2. —— it rained, we should not have gone.
3. —— it to rain, we should not go.
4. —— you been willing, I should have bought the house.
5. If you —— willing, I should buy the house.
6. He acted as if he —— afraid.
7. Even if you —— to sell the car, you could not pay your debts. [Use the copula.]
8. Unless John —— to resign, I could not possibly offer you a position. [Use the copula.]
9. I did n't mean to insult him, even if I —— angry.
10. I would n't insult him, even if I —— angry.
11. Would that this suspense —— over!
12. She had better write down the address lest she —— it.
13. Though he —— to make restitution, he could never be respected again.
14. If he —— my employer, I should ask him for a vacation.

15. Though he —— my worst enemy, I should still pity him.
16. I shall be sorry to fail, even if the matter —— of slight account.
17. I should have been sorry to fail, even if the matter —— of slight account.
18. Unless he —— to offer me a good sum, I should not sell.
19. If John had not lost the train, he —— here by this time.
20. You look as if you —— very tired.
21. You looked as if you —— very tired.

2. Parse the indicatives, subjunctives, and imperatives in Exercises 28 and 29, using the models that follow: —

1. Say what I would, the boys thought they knew better.

Say is a regular, transitive verb — principal parts, *say*, *said*, *said* — in the present tense, subjunctive mood, active voice. It is in the first person, singular number, agreeing with its subject *I* (understood).[1] The subjunctive expresses concession (§ 276).

Thought is an irregular, transitive verb — principal parts, *think*, *thought*, *thought* — in the past tense, indicative mood, active voice. It is in the third person, plural number, agreeing with its subject *boys*.

Knew is an irregular, transitive verb used absolutely (§ 211) — principal parts, *know*, *knew*, *known* — in the past tense, indicative mood, active voice. It is in the third person, plural number, agreeing with its subject *they*.

2. Do send me your brother's address.

Do send is a regular, transitive verb — principal parts, *send*, *sent*, *sent* — in the emphatic form of the present tense, imperative mood, active voice. It is in the second person, plural number (singular in sense),[2] agreeing with its subject *you* (understood).

EXERCISE 31

(§§ 282–290, pp. 93–96)

Explain the meaning of each potential verb-phrase, and parse the phrase. In parsing such a phrase, describe it merely as a potential verb-phrase, and tell the tense, voice, person, and number, without assigning it to any mood.

[1] Or, more briefly: — "in the present subjunctive active, first person singular, agreeing," etc.

[2] Or "singular number," if that method is preferred (see §§ 119, 223).

1. I could see no more; my heart swelled into my throat; my eyes filled with tears. — Irving. 2. Reflection, you may come to-morrow. 3. I must tell you a feat of my dog Beau. 4. One cannot be angry with such a fellow. 5. So shy a man can never have been popular. 6. You should not have believed me. 7. Could beauty, my lord, have better commerce than with honesty? 8. Why should I not seek for brotherhood and alliance with a Saracen? 9. I must be idle. 10. Do you think you could manage to go?

11. May Heaven prosper his intentions! 12. Can you and will you be in town on Wednesday? 13. Mr. Tryon might well rejoice. 14. His horse's hoofs may be heard any morning before daylight. 15. Neither of you can forgive what the other has done. 16. The moral may, I hope, be useful. 17. Sometimes they would chide, and sometimes they would quite neglect him. 18. We must close up the ranks and march on. 19. I should like to see you all very much indeed.

EXERCISE 32

(§§ 284–286, p. 95)

Write ten sentences asking permission in the first, second, and third persons. Write sentences (1) granting these requests; (2) refusing them.

EXERCISE 33

(§§ 288–300, pp. 95–100)

1. Justify the use of the auxiliary (*should* or *would*). In some of the sentences, *should* might be substituted for *would* or *would* for *should*. Which are they?

1. I have also commanded in my will that you should live together in one house like brethren and friends. 2. His friends looked for it only in the Greek Calends — say on the 31st of April, when that should come round. 3. All this belongs to one of the side-shows, to which I promised those who would take tickets to the main exhibition should have entrance *gratis*. — Holmes. 4. A defeat would be fatal to the whole undertaking. 5. The little vessel, dipping her jib-boom into the tumbling froth, would go on running in a smooth, glassy hollow, a deep valley between two ridges of the sea. 6. There are some opinions in which a man should stand neuter, without engaging his assent to one side or the other. — Addison.

7. She would sometimes draw in her breath as he came near, and the pupils of her vacant eyes would contract with horror or fear. 8. I think that I should like it to be always summer. 9. I would come if I could. 10. If I were you, I would offer my resignation at once. 11. The children of the village would shout with joy whenever he approached. 12. I should not dare to call myself a poet. 13. If I were writing a poem, you would expect, as a matter of course, that there would be a digression now and then. 14. If the history of this beach could be written from beginning to end, it would be a thrilling page in the history of commerce. — THOREAU.

2. Explain the use of the auxiliary (*shall, should,* or *will, would*) in each subordinate clause.

1. If I had to choose, there are one or two persons, and but one or two, that I should like to have been better than Pope. — HAZLITT. 2. I ensconced myself in the hollow, to hide until our expected visitors should arrive. 3. I wish you would go down with me to Newstead. 4. It is necessary that at some time or other we should see things as they really are. — REYNOLDS. 5. There was one heart whose anguish it would be impossible to describe. 6. Many things which would have formed a curious record have since occurred. 7. There is nothing that they would not do for her. 8. It was fit that he should have a stately palace. 9. I am so sorry you should have heard this sad story.

10. I think I shall come out at Exeter Hall. 11. You know all I would say. 12. If you would take a chop with me on Tuesday or Wednesday, I could tell you more in two minutes than in twenty letters. 13. I thought I should have been happy with my tenants, because I could be insolent to them without their being insolent to me. 14. What is so unusual in you is that your knowledge of certain things should be combined with your ignorance of certain other things. 15. There is no living writer whose approbation I should feel so proud to earn. 16. Although he will sufficiently enlist your sympathy on his own behalf, I am sure that you will not be the less interested in him because I am.

17. I could tell you some good news, had I not promised the Cardinal that he should communicate it to you himself. 18. I met H. Coote, and thought he would invite me, but he did not. 19. I believe it will be worth three hundred pounds a year. 20. I believe I shall lose credit with you by not coming over at the beginning of April. 21. The Duke and I were settling when Mr. Secretary and I should dine with him. 22. I know not whether the ladies in Ireland will like her. 23. I doubt whether peace will be made in three weeks. 24. I wonder where we shall spend the holidays. 25. Promise me that you will sleep no longer in that wood. 26. I promised that I would not tell him your name.

EXERCISE 34

(§§ 301–314, pp. 101–104)

1. Point out each infinitive and explain its construction as noun, as complementary infinitive, as infinitive of purpose, as modifier of a noun or an adjective, or as part of a verb-phrase (with an auxiliary). Mention its modifiers or object.

1. I now proceed to the pamphlet which I intend to consider.[1] 2. It is difficult to adjust opposite claims to the satisfaction of all parties. 3. I rose in horror to gaze upon the ruins we might have caused. 4. The elderly, respectable seaman, withdrawing his gaze from that multitude of spars, gave me a glance to make sure of our fellowship in the craft and mystery of the sea. 5. My first care was to deliver your letter of recommendation to our cousin. 6. My health and spirits seem to be mending daily. 7. You know I have nothing in my own power — all I can do is to speak to my uncle for him. 8. The order to attack reached us shortly before dawn.

9. To soften the obdurate, to convince the mistaken, to mollify the resentful, are worthy of a statesman. — JOHNSON. 10. The water began to gurgle round me, and to lap upon the pebbles. 11. The famous Prince of Savoy came to visit our commander. 12. He resolved to weigh anchor that very night. 13. We dared not speak to each other. 14. John touched his hat, and set off to obey his master's orders. 15. It is the iron rule in our day to require an object and a purpose in life. — HAWTHORNE. 16. To have performed so much evinces on the part of Heyne no little mastership in the great art of husbanding time. — CARLYLE. 17. Christian, because of the burden that was on his back, began to sink in the mire. 18. He was surprised to see any human being in this lonely and unfrequented place. 19. He determined to retire from the regiment.

2. Write sentences containing an infinitive used as subject, as predicate nominative, as appositive, as the object of a preposition, as an adjective; a complementary infinitive; an infinitive of purpose; an infinitive used with *shall*, with *will*, with *must*. Note any modifiers or objects.

[1] This infinitive may be parsed as follows: — *To consider* is the present active infinitive of the regular transitive verb *consider*, — principal parts, *consider, considered, considered*. It is a complementary infinitive depending on the verb *intend*.

EXERCISE 35

(§§ 315–319, pp. 104–106)

1. Point out each infinitive clause. Mention the verb of which it is the object. Find the subject of each infinitive. When it is possible, substitute a *that*-clause for the infinitive clause.

1. This Green Arbor Court I found to be a small square. 2. I wish you to tell me the nature of your perplexity. 3. I know that nothing will induce her to ask you to attend. 4. She took her seat with sufficient dignity, and in an inaudible voice directed the Commons to be summoned. 5. Many of them believed that the French were instigating the Indians to attack and cut them off. 6. I discovered it at once to be a piece of very thin parchment. 7. Heyne declares it to be still a mystery to him how he could stand all this.

8. Through a crevice in the log the boys looked after the Indians and saw them disappear in the woods (§ 313). 9. His language was all that he desired it to be, if it conveyed his meaning to the audience. 10. He supposes all to be right that was done by Pope and Theobald. 11. Want of money had induced the king to convoke his parliament. 12. He advised Bacon to plead guilty. 13. I beseech your lordships to be merciful. 14. The governor possessed a good library and permitted Clive to have free access to it. 15. The wisest among his councillors advised him to put himself into the hands of the English. Others urged him to try the chance of war again.

2. Write sentences containing infinitive clauses used after verbs of *wishing*, *commanding*, *believing*, *declaring*, *perceiving*.

3. Fill each blank with a personal pronoun.

1. I supposed it to be ——. [Third person.]
2. She thought the tramp to be ——. [First person.]
3. I believed the stowaway to be ——. [Third person.]
4. We knew the maskers to be ——. [Third person.]
5. They supposed the three men to be ——. [First person.]
6. They supposed that the three men were ——. [First person.]

4. Fill each blank with *who* or *whom*.

1. The man —— I believe to be best fitted for the position is Walton.
2. The man ——, I believe, is best fitted for the position is Walton.
3. I handed the letter to a youth —— I took to be your brother.
4. It was Robert —— I thought to be in the wrong.

EXERCISE 36

(§§ 320–334, pp. 106–109)

1. Point out all the participles, present and past, and tell what substantive each modifies. Mention such as are used as pure adjectives. Mention any modifiers or objects of participles.

1. Wearied with the long detention in a gloomy hotel, I walked out about eleven o'clock at night for the sake of fresh air.[1] 2. He saw at a distance the lordly Hudson, far, far below him, moving on its silent but majestic course, with the reflection of a purple cloud, or the sail of a lagging bark, here and there sleeping on its glassy bosom, and at last losing itself in the blue highlands. — Irving. 3. The result was that the Nonconformists remained excluded from office in the state. 4. Prior seemed to have no fatigue remaining from his journey. 5. I found the place thronged with people who had all the appearance of ruffians. — Borrow. 6. The position was unpleasantly exposed. 7. Two cavaliers rode up briskly to the chaise, commanding the coachman to stop. 8. Oliver looked very worn and shadowy from sickness.

9. Her eyes were large, blue, wondering eyes, looking straight at you. 10. Sounds of gruff voices practising vocal music invade the evening's silence. 11. I felt tongue-tied, embarrassed. 12. They had seen their gods trampled in the dust, their altars broken, their dwellings burned, their warriors falling on all sides. — Prescott. 13. Generally speaking, the times which afford most plentiful matter for story are those wherein a man should least choose to live. — Swift. 14. It was by mere chance that, coming by the door and seeing the crowd, I asked what the matter was. 15. He took the fifty pounds for himself and put it in his pocket, wrapping it in paper. 16. Being flushed with our success, we were not so vigilant.

2. Write sentences containing the past participles of six regular verbs; of six irregular verbs.

3. Write sentences containing a participle used as a pure adjective; a participle used as a predicate adjective; a participle modified adverbially; a participle taking an object.

4. Write ten sentences each containing a perfect (or phrasal past) participle. Substitute for each a clause with *when*.

[1] *Wearied* may be parsed as follows: — *Wearied* is the past participle of the regular transitive verb *weary*, — principal parts, *weary*, *wearied*, *wearied*. It belongs to the pronoun *I*.

EXERCISE 37

(§§ 335–337, pp. 109–110)

Explain all examples of the nominative absolute. Substitute a modifying clause in each sentence.

1. The house being small, my apartment was divided from Prior's by a thin wainscot. 2. The vessel being repaired, we again embarked, and in two days arrived in safety at Cadiz. — Borrow. 3. The subjects being so various, no single passage can in all respects be a specimen of the book at large. 4. This done, my companion and I proceeded to deliberate on our future course. 5. The campaign began very early, our troops marching out of their quarters before the winter was over.

6. The candle stood on the counter, its flame solemnly wagging in a draught. 7. As for the rest of my infancy, there being nothing in it remarkable, I shall pass it over in silence. 8. The revolution completed, the double government dissolved, the Company installed in the full sovereignty of Bengal, Hastings had no motive to treat the late ministers with rigor. — Macaulay.

EXERCISE 38

(§§ 338–344, pp. 110–112)

1. Point out the present participles, and also the verbal nouns in *-ing* (participial nouns). Show the difference. Mention any modifiers or complements used with either.

1. Sometimes we sat on the wet beach and watched the beach birds, sandpipers and others, trotting along close to each wave, and waiting for the sea to cast up their breakfast. — Thoreau. 2. A vast deal of bantering, criticising of countenances, of mutual accusation and retort took place. 3. The progress of agriculture has led to the draining of marshes, the felling of forests, and the transformation of heaths and wastes into arable land. 4. The browsing camels' bells are tinkling. 5. Cortes, politely waving his hand, returned to his vessel. 6. He perceived a strange figure slowly toiling up the rocks.

7. A little sprig of ivy may be seen creeping up the side of the low wall and clinging fast with its many feet to the rough surface. 8. A good many of them have certainly abstained from voting. 9. Heyne had set his heart on attaining knowledge. 10. He seemed to be busied in breaking an egg with delicate precision. 11. The officers, smartly dressed, are at the gangway, handing the passengers up the side and hurrying the men. 12. I paused, and felt my old panic returning.

2. Write sentences in which (1) a verbal noun and (2) a present participle are formed from —

write, shoot, dispute, beg, motor, coast, argue, fish, drink, borrow, scold, fence, fight, steal, hear, growl, wrestle, struggle, bark, cry, pass, squeak, move, gesticulate, laugh, mow, race, wash, escape, give, send.

3. Whenever it is possible, substitute either a noun or an infinitive for each verbal noun in your sentences.

4. Select three of these verbal nouns, and write other sentences in which each is used (1) as a subject, (2) with a direct and an indirect object, (3) with an adjective modifier, (4) with an adverbial modifier.

EXERCISE 39

(§§ 346–362, pp. 113–117)

1. Point out and parse the prepositions and conjunctions.

In parsing a preposition, tell (1) the object, and (2) the word to which the preposition shows the relation of the object.

In parsing a conjunction, indicate the words or groups of words which it connects, tell whether it is coördinate or subordinate, and mention its correlative (§ 359) if it has one.

1. Merrily the fountain plashed and plashed, until the dimples, merging into one another, swelled into a general smile that covered the whole surface of the basin. — Dickens. 2. Among boys there are laws of honor and chivalrous codes, not written or formally taught, but intuitively understood by all, and invariably acted upon by the loyal and the true. — Meredith. 3. Wisdom is not banished from their poor hearts, nor the balm of natural feeling. — Carlyle. 4. Providence furnishes materials, but expects we should work them up for ourselves. — Addison. 5. He not only did not speak, but did not turn his eye upon her.

6. Rich are the sea-gods: — who gives gifts but they? — Emerson. 7. Who has ever been able to define the exact boundary between courage and rashness? 8. But whether St. Mark was first bishop of Aquileia or not, St. Theodore was the first patron of the city. 9. Long ago, in speaking of Homer, I said that the noble and profound application of ideas to life is the most essential part of poetic greatness. — Arnold. 10. She asked if it had not been published some time back.

2. Write sentences in which the following words are used as indicated: —

for (*preposition, conjunction*), then (*conjunction, adverb*), notwithstanding (*preposition, conjunction*), since (*preposition, adverb, relative adverb*), until (*preposition, relative adverb*), as (*conjunction, relative pronoun, relative adverb*), that (*conjunction, relative pronoun, demonstrative adjective, demonstrative pronoun*), but (*preposition, conjunction*).

3. Construct sentences containing *either* and *or, neither* and *nor, whether* and *or, not only* and *but also, both* and *and, though, if, because.*

4. Construct six sentences containing coördinate conjunctions; six containing subordinate conjunctions; six containing relative adverbs.

EXERCISE 40

(§§ 363–365, p. 118)

Point out all interjections, all other parts of speech used here in exclamation, and all exclamatory phrases.

1. Awake! what ho, Brabantio! thieves! thieves! thieves! — SHAKSPERE. 2. Woe to the hand that shed this costly blood! 3. O poor Orlando! thou art overthrown. 4. Hail, Cæsar, and my lord! hail, most dear Cæsar! 5. Up! up! my friend, and quit your books. 6. Alas! alas! there have six of them gone in these last few years. 7. But hark! what nearer war-drum shakes the glade? 8. "O Heaven!" he cried, "my bleeding country save!"

9. Hail to thee, blithe spirit! 10. Huntsman, rest! thy chase is done. 11. Where didst thou see her? O unhappy girl! 12. Whew! a plague upon you all! 13. Soft! who are you? 14. Crack! crack! the glass-coach rattles. 15. What! was Mr. Slope there too? 16. Poh! you have seen nothing. 17. Pshaw, 't is from Sir Andrew Fountaine. 18. Hark! hark! I hear yon whistling shroud.

EXERCISE 41

(§§ 366–380, pp. 119–121)

1. Construct ten sentences in which the simple subject (noun or pronoun) is modified by an adjective clause; ten in which the simple predicate (verb) is modified by an adverbial clause.

2. Construct five sentences, each containing a noun (or substantive) clause used as subject; as object of a verb or preposition; in apposition; as predicate nominative.

EXERCISE 42

(§§ 381–389, pp. 122–123)

1. Tell whether each of the subordinate clauses expresses place, time, cause, or concession. Is the clause adjective or adverbial? What introduces it? What does it modify?

1. I know your gentle nature will sympathize with me, though your prudence may condemn me. 2. Before we knew very well what was coming, all the sails we had set had burst. 3. Though the prospect was so extensive, and the country for the most part destitute of trees, a house was rarely visible. 4. I am the more at ease in Sir Roger's family because it consists of sober and staid persons. 5. When we arrived upon the verge of his estate, we stopped at a little inn to rest ourselves and our horses. 6. Though he had been sorely buffeted about the world, he was satisfied that the world, in itself, was good and beautiful. — Irving. 7. About half a mile from the southern wall is a stone fountain, where the muleteers are accustomed to water their horses.

8. As I was yesterday riding out in the fields with my friend Sir Roger, we saw at a little distance from us a troop of gypsies. 9. I instinctively drew back my head under the tarpaulins, where I could neither see nor be seen. 10. When the Duke of Norfolk came to Norwich, he was greeted like a king returning to his capital. 11. Our opponents never had a shadow of chance in their favor, though they fought with the most foolhardy valor. 12. Everything told of the sea, even when we did not see its waste or hear its roar. — Thoreau. 13. It is useless to go back to Limmeridge till there is an absolute necessity for our return.

14. Where thou diest I will die, and there will I be buried. 15. There is a belt of turf along the side of Aros Bay where walking is easy; and it was along this that I silently followed my silent kinsman. 16. Although the Spaniards on duty could see nothing, they distinctly heard the sound of many oars in the water.

2. Illustrate clauses of place, time, cause, and concession by constructing twenty sentences, five for each.

3. Tell whether the clauses are adjective or adverbial. What does each modify?

EXERCISE 43

(§§ 391–397, pp. 124–125)

1. Point out the clauses of purpose and those of result.

1. He gazed so long that his eyes were dazzled. 2. The whole coast is so free from rocks that we saw but one or two for more than twenty miles. 3. In this plight, therefore, he went home, and refrained himself as long as he could, that his wife and children should not perceive his distress. — Bunyan. 4. He was a tall, dingy man, in whom length was so predominant over breadth that he might almost have been borrowed for a foundry poker. — Coleridge. 5. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. 6. Let us have the agreement in writing, in order that there may be no mistake. 7. The speech he made was so little to the purpose that I shall not trouble my readers with an account of it.

2. Write five sentences containing each a clause of purpose; of result; an infinitive clause expressing purpose.

3. Write ten sentences in which the infinitive (without a subject) expresses purpose.

EXERCISE 44

(§§ 398–413, pp. 125–129)

1. Explain each conditional clause.

1. If I had been aware Mr. Mapletoft was in town, I should have returned him the two guineas I have of his. — Gray. 2. I cannot discharge the part of a friend, if I omit to let you know. 3. Had I chosen for myself, it is impossible I could have fixed upon a place so agreeable. 4. If you are for a cool argument upon that subject, I am ready to accept your challenge. 5. If I had been at home, I would have given him something.

6. It would be very ungrateful on my part, were I not to confess my great obligations to Galiano. 7. Suppose that a man tells you that he saw a person strike another and kill him: that's testimonial evidence of the fact of murder. 8. If you took the jewels, I hope you buried them. 9. Should this venture fail, I will go back to Oxford. 10. You had spared me many a bitter night, had you told me sooner. 11. A surly mastiff will perhaps bear to be stroked, though he will growl under that operation; but if you touch him roughly, he will bite. 12. Could we teach taste or genius by rules, they would no longer be taste or genius. — Reynolds. 13. If friends he had, he bade adieu to none.

14. If I were to go to one place, I should have to go everywhere. **15.** If ever it is in my power to befriend you, I am ready. **16.** If I had had my bamboo, I should certainly have laid it across his shoulders. **17.** He shall never be insulted under my roof, if I can prevent it.

2. Write twenty sentences, each containing a conditional clause. Tell whether each condition refers to present, past, or future time. Which of them are contrary to fact?

EXERCISE 45

(§§ 414–416, pp. 129–130)

1. Point out the clauses of comparison and explain such forms of verbs or pronouns as may require comment.

1. The divinity student looked as if he would like to question my Latin. — Holmes. **2.** I have been through as many hardships as Ulysses. **3.** Sea-air ripens friendship quicker than the hotbed of a city. — Trelawny. **4.** Addison wrote his papers as gaily as if he were going out for a holiday. — Thackeray. **5.** The horse plods along at a footpace, as if there were no such thing as business in the world.

6. I felt as though I should faint, and reached out to the rail for support. **7.** The architecture of a nation is great only when it is as universal and as established as its language; and when provincial differences of style are nothing more than so many dialects. — Ruskin. **8.** The autumn wind wandered among the branches, whirling away the leaves from all except the pine trees, and moaning as if it lamented the desolation of which it was the instrument. — Hawthorne. **9.** We are glad that so able a writer as Mr. Hill has taken up the cudgels.

2. Write ten sentences containing *as if* with a subjunctive.

3. Insert personal pronouns of the first or third person.

1. William can row better than ——.
2. You are abler than ——.
3. Do you trust him more than ——?
4. Dunbar is less hasty than ——.
5. Is Alice quicker than ——?
6. Stedman is more generally liked than ——.
7. You have had as much experience as ——.
8. You have had less experience than ——.
9. John is as clever as ——.

EXERCISE 46

(§§ 417–422, pp. 130–131)

1. Change the direct statements to indirect, prefixing *He said,* with the proper changes in person and tense. Thus, —

I will do what I can.
He said that he would do what he could.

1. The drawbridge is still to be seen, but the moat is now dry. 2. The chief riches of Ireland consisted in cattle. 3. We took the longest road, which lies through Savoy. 4. 'T is near twelve, and so I 'll answer your letter. 5. I dined privately with a friend to-day. 6. The Duke of Cambridge is staying in this house. 7. This is the first fine day we have had. 8. The people are perfectly kind and agreeable. 9. I was more affected than you can easily believe by the sight of your gift. 10. Time is money. 11. I have been packing up some books in a great box I have bought.

2. Change into a direct statement each clause that is in the indirect discourse. Mention the construction of the clause (as subject, object, etc.).

1. The report went abroad that the missing ship had been captured by the French. 2. I confess that I felt somewhat nettled at this rudeness. 3. I now perceived that the dog had shrunk into an angle of the wall. 4. I found that our words froze in the air before they could reach the ears of the person to whom they were spoken. 5. I have nothing to say in particular on the subject of Homer, except that I am daily advancing in the work. — Cowper. 6. It can scarcely be alleged that the public was altogether unprepared for the catastrophe.

7. Marion informed her that Margaret had replied to her inquiry, and had promised to come if she could. 8. To Mr. Lorry, the Doctor communicated under an injunction of secrecy on which he had no need to dwell, that the crowd had taken him through a scene of carnage to the prison of La Force. 9. The gypsy told him that he was a bachelor, but would not be so long. 10. That wonder is the effect of ignorance, has often been observed. 11. His enemies have never denied that he had a fearless and manly spirit; and his friends must acknowledge that his estimate of himself was extravagantly high, that his temper was irritable, that his deportment was often rude and petulant, and that his hatred was of intense bitterness and long duration. — Macaulay.

3. Write five sentences in which indirect discourse is expressed by an infinitive clause (§ 422).

EXERCISE 47

(§ 423, p. 132)

1. Write five sentences illustrating each of the three passive constructions in § 423. Change each of your sentences to one of the other constructions, if possible.

2. Write ten sentences in each of which a clause in the indirect discourse is the subject of a passive verb.

EXERCISE 48

(§ 425, p. 132)

1. Explain the use of *shall*, *should*, *will*, or *would* in each instance. Change the indirect discourse to the direct.

1. I think you will not be surprised at my persisting in my intention of going abroad. 2. My sister Mary remarked that we should all be glad to see him. 3. I felt that you would be deeply disappointed. 4. The Duchess said that there was no person in whom she should have more confidence as a son-in-law. 5. They say the Duke will make the Duchess leave the Queen out of spite. 6. He says that he will risk part of the expense with the publisher.

7. I shall take another opportunity to observe that a person of an absolute and consummate virtue should never be introduced in tragedy. — Addison. 8. Colonel Masham and Colonel Hill tell me my request is reasonable, and they will second it heartily. 9. I think I should shake hands with thee if I met thee. 10. Morton says that he shall expect us on Monday. 11. Holguin assured him that his wishes should be respected. 12. I declare I will not dance. 13. He assured her that his joy in returning would be great.

2. Fill the blanks with the proper auxiliary (*shall* or *should*, or *will* or *would*).

1. I was afraid that we —— be late.
2. I promise that he —— not come to any harm.
3. Richard said that he —— telegraph you.
4. The rumor is that I —— be made president of the club.
5. I told Maxwell that I hoped he —— win.
6. Father insists that I —— fail.
7. I urged that Stearns —— go in my place. (See § 295.)
8. I believe that Stearns —— go.

9. He begged that we —— help him.
10. Austin would think that I —— accept the position.
11. Jennings hopes that he —— not have to give up.
12. I maintain that we —— be sorry for this.
13. I told him that I —— not have thought it possible.
14. Tell your uncle that I —— send him my address.

3. Change the indirect statements in the sentences which you have just made to direct statements.

EXERCISE 49

(§§ 426–431, pp. 132–134)

1. Some, but not all, of the following sentences contain indirect questions. Point out these questions and tell what introduces them (interrogative pronoun, interrogative adverb, subordinate conjunction). Mention the construction of each interrogative clause (as subject, object, etc.).

2. Turn each indirect question into a direct question.

3. Point out such relative clauses as you find in the sentences. Are they adjective or adverbial modifiers?

1. What the shore was, we knew not. 2. They asked me what I was, in Portuguese and in Spanish. 3. I could never fathom how a man dares to lift up his voice to preach in a cathedral. — Stevenson. 4. Love and Death enter boarding houses without asking the price of board, or whether there is room for them. — Holmes. 5. I reported what I had seen to our captain. 6. How many have fallen, we know not. 7. I went up the hill to see how the shore lay. 8. The man in the cocked hat demanded who he was, and what was his name.

9. A great man is one who affects the minds of his generation. — Disraeli. 10. Put on a bright face for your customers, and smile pleasantly as you hand them what they ask for. 11. In answer to an inquiry why she had not gone to take off her things, Clare said she was not hungry. 12. I think I knew at that moment what it was. 13. The sculptor inquired of his good friend Tomaso, whether he, too, had noticed the shadow which was said to have recently fallen over Donatello's life. 14. I scarce knew what to call them. 15. The grand concern at present was how to get to college at Liverpool.

16. These things made men augur ill of what was to follow. 17. Voltaire was right in thinking that the energetic and profound treatment

of moral ideas is what distinguishes English poetry. 18. I cannot sufficiently say how proud I am of what you have done. 19. You may inquire of me how I like Paris. 20. Come, my lads, let us see what shot remains in the locker. 21. When Helen's anxious looks inquired of him what had happened at Baymouth, and whether her darling project was fulfilled, Pen, in a gay tone, told of the calamity which had befallen. — THACKERAY.

4. Write sentences containing indirect questions introduced by *who, which, what, when, how, why, whether, if.*

5. Fill the blanks with *who* or *whom.* Tell, in each sentence, whether *who* or *whom* is an interrogative or a relative pronoun.

1. Tell me —— you are.
2. Tell me —— you asked.
3. I wonder —— it was that I saw.
4. I saw the boy —— found the watch.
5. James has discovered —— the owner is.
6. We suspected —— you were.
7. They were in doubt —— to invite.
8. Tom understands —— to inquire for.
9. I know the man —— you wish to see.
10. I know —— you ought to consult.
11. I have learned —— wrote that letter.

6. Turn all the indirect questions which you have just written into direct questions.

7. Construct sentences in which each of the verbs (or verb-phrases) is followed by an indirect question: —

asked, tell, inquire, is learning, see, might discover, had heard, have found, doubt, have perceived, is thinking, wonders, knew, was told, understands, to comprehend, is, could ascertain, has reported, will announce.

EXERCISE 50

(§ 432, p. 134)

1. Turn each indirect question into the direct form. Explain the use of *shall, should, will, would.*

1. His mother wonders why he should still wish to provoke the dangers of the deep. 2. I am told that you are eager to know what I will

do for the workingman. 3. I was wondering what I should do to meet the imperative necessity for earning my own bread. 4. It is not easy to see why he should have been so implacable. 5. This is all I know of Sir Percival's friend. I wonder if he will ever come to England. I wonder if I shall like him.

6. Though many years have elapsed since I trod the drowsy shades of Sleepy Hollow, yet I question whether I should not still find the same trees and the same families vegetating in its sheltered bosom. 7. I cannot tell you how much pleasure I should derive from the receipt of a letter from you. 8. I very much doubted whether the general subject would not be objectionable to the government. 9. Landseer asked me if I would present to you from him the accompanying engraving. 10. He is therefore maturely considering how he shall dispose his walks and his groves. 11. I sometimes wonder whether I shall miss something when my readings are over. 12. What were his powers? what should be his aim? were often to him, as to all young aspirants, questions infinitely perplexing and full of pain. 13. Sir John Jervis asked him [Nelson] if he should have any objection to serve under him.

2. Fill the blanks with the proper auxiliary (*shall, should, will, would*). Then change each indirect question to the direct form.

1. Ruth asked me if I —— teach her French.
2. I wonder whether the enterprise —— succeed or not.
3. My brother inquires whether or not we —— need his services.
4. I cannot explain why he —— neglect me.
5. We wondered if Tom —— join the glee club.
6. I should like to know if you —— make the address.
7. I wonder if I —— like that opera.
8. It is doubtful whether we —— buy a car or not.
9. I understand now why he —— wish to enter the navy.
10. Tell us if we —— turn to the right.

EXERCISE 51

(§§ 433–434, p. 135)

1. Mention the substantives that make up the compound subjects and the verbs that make up the compound predicates in Exercise 4.

2. See if you can make any of the sentences in Exercise 4 compound by inserting personal pronouns as subjects.

3. Divide each compound sentence in § 471 into the independent coördinate clauses that compose it.

4. Make each sentence in Exercise 4 complex by inserting or adding a subordinate clause. Is your clause adjective or adverbial? What does it modify?

5. Divide each complex sentence in Exercises 13, 19, 33 (2), 48–50, into the independent (main) clause and the subordinate clause.

6. Construct compound or complex sentences, using each of the following simple sentences from "Ivanhoe" as one clause.

1. The sun had now sunk. 2. The knight resolved to trust to the sagacity of his horse. 3. A fountain of the purest water trickled out of the rock. 4. The path from the wood leads to a morass. 5. The knight shrugged his shoulders. 6. These are dangerous words. 7. Their revels were interrupted. 8. The companions of Gurth bound him with a halter. 9. They rode side by side. 10. Offend him not by thy folly. 11. They had reached the little moonlight glade. 12. Isaac sat in a corner of his dungeon. 13. The dust raised by the trampling of so many steeds darkened the air.

EXERCISE 52

(§§ 436–447, pp. 135–138)

1. Point out the adjectives used as modifiers of the subject. Substitute for each an adjective phrase; an adjective clause (§ 442).

1. The fatal decree has gone forth. 2. "Shake hands, nephew," said a broad-faced, broad-shouldered gentleman in a scarlet-laced waistcoat. 3. The dreary dawn peeps at length through shutters and curtains. 4. That haughty-looking man is my Lord George Sackville. 5. Reasonable people know themselves better than is commonly imagined. 6. A small footpath ran along the margin of the wood. 7. An unaffected behavior is without question a very great charm. 8. Behind the house stretched a large garden, where there was plenty of room for cabbages as well as roses to grow. 9. His high-crowned gray hat lay on the floor, covered with dust. 10. A quick intellect catches ideas from the glance of a moment. 11. High thoughts rolled, one after another, upon the mind of the warrior. 12. Strange names were over the doors, strange faces at the windows.

2. Construct sentences, using the following adjective phrases as modifiers of the subject: —

in the barracks; across the square; from our window; of hoofs; with a torn cover; along the river; of the approaching train; round the corner; in a heap; from England; in the Gothic style; in the midst of a grove; in the bloom of youth.

3. Substitute (if possible) an adjective clause for each adjective phrase in the sentences you have just written.

4. Point out all participles used as modifiers of the simple subject in Exercise 36. Write ten sentences containing such modifiers (§ 443).

5. Construct ten sentences similar to 9–11 in § 443 (with infinitives modifying the simple subject).

6. Write ten sentences containing nouns or pronouns in the possessive case used as modifiers of the subject (§ 444).

7. Write ten sentences containing nouns in apposition with the subject (§§ 83, 5; 445); five in which a noun clause is thus used (§§ 375, 447).

EXERCISE 53

(§§ 448–454, pp. 138–140)

1. Point out all the adverbs used to modify the simple predicate (verb). Substitute for each an adverbial phrase or clause.

1. Old Homer wrote admirably for little folk. 2. Certain stars shot madly from their spheres. 3. Our troops set forth to-morrow. 4. Within his car, aloft, young Bacchus stood. 5. Circle-wise sit they, with bound locks. — Rossetti. 6. She waved her hand lightly and smiled. 7. Ridley ran downstairs in a high state of indignation. 8. I had not observed him closely. 9. I heartily thank you for it and highly esteem it. 10. I like the article exceedingly.

11. I perfectly concur in all you say. 12. I write to you very hastily and crudely. 13. He looked hard at me, but said nothing. 14. I do not well understand that. 15. Soon she hears the tread of heavy steps. 16. Mr. Jerome shook his bridle violently. 17. They conversed every day long and freely about the state of the shipping and the dockyards. 18. Afterwards I wandered up among the people, and looked at the sports.

2. Write ten sentences in which the simple predicate is modified by an infinitive (§§ 314, 450); by an adverbial objective or by a phrase containing one (§§ 111, 451); by a nominative absolute (§§ 336, 452); by an indirect object (§§ 103, 453); by a cognate object (§§ 110, 454).

3. Point out the complementary infinitives and the infinitives of purpose in Exercise 34, and tell what verb each modifies.

EXERCISE 54

(§§ 455–457, pp. 141–143)

1. Point out the complements and describe each (as direct object, predicate nominative, etc.).

1. This proved a rainy day. **2.** He has sent me the address. **3.** The conversation is sometimes quite literary. **4.** The mother lies sleepless and praying in her lonely house. **5.** "These are fine manners!" cried the maid. **6.** Rochester House was a magnificent residence on the banks of the canal. **7.** His forehead was broad and high. **8.** I'll make you the queen of Naples. **9.** The time seems long.

10. I'll not call you tyrant. **11.** Indolence undermines the foundation of every virtue. **12.** Madrid is the noisiest city I ever dwelt in. **13.** The most interesting part of my visit to Birmingham was a call I made by appointment on Cardinal Newman. **14.** He was benignly courteous. **15.** A more gracious old age I never saw. **16.** You call me misbeliever. **17.** We are having the most superb winter weather. **18.** Expect another package from me ere long. **19.** I am rather languid to-day. **20.** There was a noisy crowd everywhere.

2. Write ten simple sentences, each containing the direct object of a verb; a predicate objective; a predicate nominative; a predicate adjective.

EXERCISE 55

(§§ 458–461, pp. 144–145)

1. Point out any modifiers of complements in the sentences called for in Exercise 54, 2. Introduce other modifiers of complements, if you can without injuring the sentences.

2. Write sentences similar to those in § 457, 4, taking care to include in each a complement modified.

3. Write ten sentences, each containing a substantive complement modified by an adjective clause (§ 457, 1 and 3); an adjective complement modified by an adverbial clause (§ 457, 4). Divide each sentence into the main and the subordinate clause.

4. Point out all modifiers of complements in Exercises 11, 17.

EXERCISE 56

(§§ 462–464, pp. 145–146)

1. Write ten sentences illustrating adjectives (or adjective phrases) modified either by adverbs or by groups of words used adverbially.

2. Write ten sentences, each containing a possessive noun modified; an appositive modified; an adverbial phrase modified.

3. Write ten sentences illustrating the use of adjective or adverbial clauses as modifiers of modifiers.

EXERCISE 57

(§§ 465–467, p. 147)

Point out the independent elements. Tell whether each is an interjection, a vocative (nominative of direct address), an exclamatory nominative, or a parenthetical expression.

1. Thrice-noble Titus, spare my first-born son. **2.** I, Catherine, am a Douglas born. **3.** Poor fellow! it is time he removed from Pentonville. **4.** I have (alas!) got through all Sir Walter's Scotch novels this winter. — FitzGerald. **5.** Roll on, grinding wheels of the world. **6.** There, I say, thou mayest be eased of thy burden. **7.** Ay me, poor man, how pale and wan he looks! **8.** Thomson's "Seasons," again, looks best (I maintain it) a little torn, and dog's-eared. — Lamb. **9.** The lord (for so I understood he was) looked at me with an air of surprise. **10.** The drama, as is well known, had an equally didactic origin. **11.** Well, it was a happy time for almost all parties concerned. **12.** I sent you, my dear, a melancholy letter. **13.** Why, sir, I brought you word an hour since. **14.** Ho, there! fisherman, hold your hand!

15. I had, as I have said before, never been farther afield than Fulham or Battersea Rise. 16. It would be time enough, he thought, to mention Captain Cleveland's proposal when his consort should arrive. 17. I admire — none more admire — the painter's magic skill. 18. Not many sounds in life, and I include all urban and all rural sounds, exceed in interest a knock at the door. 19. Thou comest, Autumn, heralded by the rain. 20. Imlac, in "Rasselas," says — I forget to whom — "You have convinced me that it is impossible to be a poet." — COWPER. 21. Hear, lady, yet a parting word. 22. This story, as I hoped it would, did move him to a sort of tenderness. — DEFOE. 23. In a word, we made the capes of Virginia in two-and-thirty days. 24. You do not forget, I dare say, that you and Sir Thomas called upon me a very few days before I took leave of London. 25. Adieu, my dear; I am never happier, I think, than when I am reading your letters.

EXERCISE 58

(§§ 468–475, pp. 148–152)

1. Analyze (as directed in § 468) the simple sentences in Exercises 51 (6), 52, 54; in §§ 443, 445, 451, 457, 459, 462; your own simple sentences in Exercise 54, 2. In analyzing, describe each sentence as declarative, interrogative, etc. If a sentence is imperative, supply the subject. If there is an independent element, omit it in analysis.

2. Analyze (as directed in § 470) the compound sentences in Exercise 6; those in § 471.

3. Analyze (as in § 472) the complex sentences in Exercises 13, 19, 33 (2), 42–45; in §§ 449, 457, 464.

4. Analyze the compound and the complex sentences that you made in Exercise 51, 6.

5. Analyze (as in § 478) the compound complex sentences in §§ 476–477, 479.

EXERCISE 59

(§§ 474–475, p. 152)

1. Construct ten complex sentences in which the independent (main) clause is compound: as, — "When they saw the ship, *they shouted for joy and some of them burst into tears.*"

2. Construct ten complex sentences in which two subordinate clauses are attached to the main clause separately, one modifying the simple subject (noun), the other modifying the simple predicate (verb): as, — "The bridge, *which had been weakened by the ice,* fell with a crash *while the locomotive was crossing it.*"

3. Construct ten complex sentences in which the subordinate clause is compound: as, —

The guide told us *that the river was in flood and that the road was impassable.*

Before the battle was over and while the result was still in doubt, the general ordered a retreat.

4. Construct ten complex sentences in which there are two subordinate clauses, one dependent on the other: as, —

I met a good-natured old gentleman *who was born in the village where my parents lived.*

5. Analyze your sentences.

EXERCISE 60

(§§ 476–479, pp. 153–154)

1. Analyze the compound complex sentences in § 479, as a review.

2. Construct ten sentences, each consisting of two independent complex clauses; of one simple and one complex clause.

EXERCISE 61

(§§ 480–486, pp. 155–156)

1. Analyze the sentences in § 481. Explain the ellipses.

2. Write five sentences illustrating each of the following kinds of ellipsis: — (1) the subject of an imperative; (2) a relative pronoun; (3) the conjunction *that;* (4) the copula and its subject with *while, when, though, if;* (5) ellipsis in a clause with *as* or *than.*

EXERCISE 62

(§§ 470–479, pp. 149–154)

The following compound, complex, and compound complex sentences may be used for study and analysis.

1. The tree against which they were posted had a dark shadow cast upon it by the intervention of an enormous pine that grew between it and the fire. 2. When they entered Suffolk, a number of gentry, who had been appointed to aid the sheriff, met them. 3. We landed in a blink of fine weather; but we had not been two minutes ashore, before the wind freshened into half a gale, and the rain began to patter on our shoulders. — Stevenson. 4. I have heard of a man that was angry with himself because he was no taller; and of a woman that broke her looking-glass because it would not show her face to be as young and handsome as her next neighbor's was. — Izaak Walton. 5. The sky was clear, and a single star shone out sharply. 6. I fear that it will do no good. 7. It was some time before I left the churchyard.

8. In an access of hunger for his good opinion, she bethought herself of what she had latterly endeavored to forget. 9. There is likewise a kind of barrack, where half a dozen soldiers are stationed. 10. I shall therefore be very glad to make you a visit at Strawberry Hill, whenever you give me notice of a convenient time. 11. When a man cannot bear his own company, there is something wrong. 12. A French author has advanced this seeming paradox, — that very few men know how to take a walk. — Johnson. 13. It was four o'clock; the sun was rising; and the routed army came pouring into the streets of Bridgewater. 14. I reckoned in one day thirteen cascades, the least of which was one hundred feet in height. 15. Our good Daniel had none of that confidence which usually so unpleasantly characterizes self-taught men. — Southey.

16. Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body. 17. As soon as Sir John took his leave, Fox returned to his task; but he could no longer keep his mind upon the problem which had absorbed him an hour earlier. 18. Whatever thwarts, or puts me out of my way, brings death into my mind. — Lamb. 19. It has been the opinion of several learned persons that the stars do only incline, and not force, the actions or wills of men. 20. He was wondering what might be the value of any one man's labor for his fellow men. 21. It was in vain that I attempted to appear cheerful. 22. How things were suffered to go on thus, I cannot guess. 23. It was on a blustering autumnal afternoon that Wolfert made his visit to the inn. 24. At length the orchestra, which had been wrestling with a composition much beyond its ability, ceased from its labors, and the curtain began to rise unsteadily.

APPENDIX

LISTS OF VERBS

In the first list, only such verb forms are given as are indisputably correct in accordance with the best prose usage of the present day. The pupil may feel perfectly safe, therefore, in using the forms registered in this list.[1]

A few verbs (marked *) which are seldom or never used in ordinary language are included in this list. These have various irregularities. A few verbs are partly strong and partly weak.

Weak verbs are printed in italics.

For the modal auxiliaries, see page 217.

I

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
abide	abode	abode
am (*subjunc.*, be)	was	been
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, *awaked*	*awaked*
bear	bore	borne, born[2]
beat	beat	beaten
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld

[1] The omission of a form from the list, then, does not necessarily indicate that it is wrong or even objectionable. There is considerable diversity of usage with regard to the strong verbs, and to state the facts at length would take much space. An attempt to include archaic, poetical, and rare forms in the same list with the usual modern forms is sure to mislead the pupil. Hence the list here presented is confined to forms about whose correctness there can be no difference of opinion. Archaic and poetical tense-forms are treated later (pp. 215–217).

[2] *Born* is used only in the passive sense of "born into the world."

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
bend	*bent*	*bent*
bereave	*bereft, bereaved*	*bereft, bereaved* [1]
beseech	*besought*	*besought*
bet	*bet*	*bet*
bid (command)	bade	bidden
bid (money)	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	*bled*	*bled*
bless (see p. 216)		
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	*bred*	*bred*
bring	*brought*	*brought*
build	*built*	*built*
burn (see p. 216)		
burst	burst	burst
buy	*bought*	*bought*
cast	*cast*	*cast*
catch	*caught*	*caught*
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
*cleave (split) [2]	*cleft*, clove	*cleft, cleaved* (cloven, *adj.*)
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	*cost*	*cost*
creep	*crept*	*crept*
crow (see p. 217)		
curse (see p. 216)		
cut	*cut*	*cut*
dare (see p. 217)		
deal	*dealt*	*dealt*
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn

[1] The adjective form is *bereaved:* as, "The bereaved father."

[2] *Cleave*, "to adhere," has *cleaved* in both the past tense and the past participle, and also an archaic past form *clave*.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
dream (see p. 216)		
dress (see p. 216)		
drink	drank	drunk (drunken, *adj.*)
drive	drove	driven
dwell	*dwelt*	*dwelt*
eat	ate	eaten
engrave (see p. 217)		
fall	fell	fallen
feed	*fed*	*fed*
feel	*felt*	*felt*
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	*fled*	*fled*
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
freight (see p. 217)		
get	got	got[1]
gird (see p. 216)		
give	gave	given
go	*went*	gone
grave (see p. 217)		
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, *hanged*[2]	hung, *hanged*[2]
have	*had*	*had*
hear	*heard*	*heard*
heave	hove, *heaved*[3]	hove, *heaved*[3]
hew	*hewed*	hewn

[1] The archaic participle *gotten* is used in the compounds *begotten* and *forgotten*, and as an adjective ("*ill-gotten* gains"). Many good speakers also use it instead of the past participle *got*, but *got* is the accepted modern form.

[2] *Hanged* is used only of execution by hanging.

[3] Usage varies with the context. We say, "The crew *hove* the cargo overboard," but NOT "She *hove* a sigh."

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
hide	hid	hidden
hit	*hit*	*hit*
hold	held	held
hurt	*hurt*	*hurt*
keep	*kept*	*kept*
kneel (see p. 216)		
knit (see p. 216)		
know	knew	known
lade[1]	*laded*	*laded*, laden
lay	*laid*	*laid*
lead	*led*	*led*
learn (see p. 216)		
leave	*left*	*left*
lend	*lent*	*lent*
let	let	let
lie (recline)[2]	lay	lain
light	*lighted* or *lit*[3]	*lighted* or *lit*[3]
lose	*lost*	*lost*
make	*made*	*made*
mean	*meant*	*meant*
meet	*met*	*met*
mow (see p. 217)		
pay	*paid*	*paid*
pen (shut up) (see p. 216)		
put	*put*	*put*
quit (see p. 216)		
read	*rĕad*	*rĕad*
**reave*	*reft, reaved*	*reft, reaved*
reeve	rove	rove
rend	*rent*	*rent*
rid	*rid*	*rid*
ride	rode	ridden

[1] *Load* has *loaded* in both the past tense and the past participle. *Laden* is sometimes used as the past participle of *load*.

[2] *Lie*, "to tell a falsehood," has *lied* in both the past tense and the past participle.

[3] So both *light*, "to kindle," and *light*, "to alight." The verb *alight* has usually *alighted* in both the past tense and the past participle.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
**rive*	*rived*	riven, *rived*
run	ran	run
say	*said*	*said*
see	saw	seen
seek	*sought*	*sought*
**seethe (transitive)*[1]	sod, *seethed*	*seethed* (sodden, *adj.*)
sell	*sold*	*sold*
send	*sent*	*sent*
set	*set*	*set*
sew (see p. 217)		
shake	shook	shaken
shape (see p. 217)		
shave	*shaved*	*shaved* (shaven, *adj.*)
shear (see p. 217)		
shed	*shed*	*shed*
shine	shone	shone
shoe	*shod*	*shod*
shoot	shot	shot
show	*showed*	shown
shred (see p. 216)		
shrink	shrank	shrunk (shrunken, *adj.*)
**shrive*	shrove, *shrived*	shriven, *shrived*
shut	*shut*	*shut*
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	*slept*	*slept*
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	*slit*	*slit*
smell (see p. 216)		

[1] *Seethe*, intransitive, has usually *seethed* in both the past tense and the past participle. It is in rather common literary use.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
smite	smote	smitten
sow	*sowed*	*sowed,* sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed (see p. 216)		
spell (see p. 217)		
spend	*spent*	*spent*
spill (see p. 217)		
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit
split	*split*	*split*
spoil (see p. 217)		
spread	*spread*	*spread*
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove, *staved*	stove, *staved*
stay (see p. 217)		
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk	stunk
strew	*strewed*	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck (stricken, *adj.*)[1]
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweat (see p. 217)		
sweep	*swept*	*swept*
swell	*swelled*	*swelled,* swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	*taught*	*taught*
tear	tore	torn
tell	*told*	*told*

[1] *Stricken* is also used as a participle in a figurative sense. Thus we say, "The community was *stricken* with pestilence," — but "The dog was *struck* with a stick."

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
think	*thought*	*thought*
thrive	throve, *thrived*	thriven, *thrived*
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	*thrust*	*thrust*
tread	trod	trodden
wake	woke, *waked*	woke, *waked*
wax (grow) (see p. 217)		
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed (see p. 217)		
weep	*wept*	*wept*
wet	*wet*	*wet*
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Bear, *break*, *drive*, *get* (*beget*, *forget*), *speak*, *spin*, *stink*, *swear*, *tear*, have an archaic past tense in *a*: *bare*, *brake*, *drave*, *gat*, *spake*, etc.

Beat, *beget* (*forget*), *bite*, *break*, *forsake*, *hide*, *ride*, *shake*, *speak*, *weave*, *write*, and some other verbs have archaic forms of the past participle like those of the past tense. The participles in *en*, however, are now the accepted forms. *Chid* and *trod* are common participial forms.

Begin, *drink*, *ring*, *shrink*, *sing*, *sink*, *spring*, *swim*, often have in poetry a *u*-form (*begun*, *sung*, etc.) in the past tense as well as in the past participle. This form (though good *old* English)[1] should be avoided in modern speech.

Bend, *beseech*, *bet*, *build*, *burst*, *catch*, *dwell*, *rend*, *split*, *wet*, have archaic or less usual forms in *ed*: *bended*, *beseeched*, *betted*, etc. *Builded* is common in the proverbial "He *builded* better than he knew." *Bursted* is common as an adjective: "a *bursted* bubble."

Bid, "to command," has sometimes *bid* in both the past tense and the past participle; *bid*, "to offer money," has these forms regularly.

Blend, *leap*, *lean*, have usually *blended*, *leaped*, *leaned*; but *blent*, *leapt*, *leant* are not uncommon.

Clothe has commonly *clothed*; but *clad* is common in literary use, and is regular in the adjectives *well-clad*, *ill-clad* (for which ordinary speech has substituted *well-dressed*, *badly* or *poorly dressed*).

[1] It is a remnant of the old past plural. In Anglo-Saxon the principal parts of *begin* were: present, *beginne*; past, *began*; past plural, *begunnon*; past participle, *begunnen*.

Dive has *dived;* but *dove* (an old form) is common in America.

Plead has past tense and past participle *pleaded. Plead* (pronounced *plĕd*) is avoided by careful writers and speakers.

Prove has past tense and past participle *proved.* The past participle *proven* should be avoided.

Work has past tense and past participle *worked. Wrought* in the past tense and the past participle is archaic, but is also modern as an adjective (as in *wrought iron*).

Some verbs have rare or archaic weak forms alongside of the strong forms; thus *digged, shined,* past tense and past participle of *dig, shine; showed,* past participle of *show.*

Ate and *eaten* are preferred to *eat* (pronounced *ĕt*).

Quoth, "said," is an old strong past tense. The compound *bequeath* has *bequeathed* only.

Miscellaneous archaisms are the past tenses *sate* for *sat, trode* for *trod, spat* for *spit;* also *writ* for *wrote* and *written, rid* for *rode* and *ridden, strewed* and *strown* for *strewn.*

II

The following verbs vary between *ed* and *t* (*d*) in the past tense and the past participle. In some of them, this variation is a mere difference of spelling. In writing, the *ed* forms are preferred in most cases; in speaking, the *t* forms are very common.

bless	blessed, blest [1]
burn	burned, burnt [2]
curse	cursed, curst [1]
dare	dared (*less commonly,* durst)
dream	dreamed, dreamt
dress	dressed, drest
gird	girded, girt [2]
kneel	kneeled, knelt [2]
knit	knit, knitted [2]
learn	learned, learnt [3]
pen (shut up)	penned, pent [2]
quit	quitted, quit [2]
shred	shredded, shred [2]
smell	smelled, smelt [2]
speed	sped, speeded [2]

[1] The adjectives are usually pronounced *blessèd, cursèd.* Compare also the adjective *accursèd.*

[2] Both forms are in good use.

[3] Both forms are in good use. The adjective is pronounced *learnèd.*

spell	spelled, spelt
spill	spilled, spilt[1]
spoil	spoiled, spoilt[1]
stay	stayed, staid
sweat	sweated, sweat[1]
wed	wedded (*p.p. also* wed)[1]

III

The following verbs have regular *ed* forms in modern prose, but in poetry and the high style sometimes show archaic forms.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
crow	crowed, crew	crowed, crown
freight	freighted	freighted, fraught (*figurative*)
grave	graved	graved, graven
engrave	engraved	engraved, engraven
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn
shape	shaped	shaped, shapen
shear	sheared, shore	sheared, shorn
wax (grow)	waxed	waxed, waxen

IV

The present tense of *may, can, shall,* is an old strong past. Hence the first and third persons singular are alike: — *I may, he may.* The actual past tenses of these verbs are weak forms: — *might, could, should. Must* is the weak past tense of an obsolete *mōt,* and is almost always used as a present tense (§ 287).

Dare and *owe* originally belonged to this class. *Owe* has become a regular weak verb, except for the peculiar past tense *ought,* which is used in a present sense (see § 288); *dare* has in the third person *dare* or *dares,* and in the past *dared,* more rarely *durst.* The archaic *wot* "know," past *wist,* also belongs to this class. *Will* is inflected like *shall,* having *will* in the first and third singular, *wilt* in the second singular, and *would* in the past.

[1] Both forms are in good use.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO BE*

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am.	We are.
2. Thou art.	You are.
3. He is.	They are.

Past Tense

1. I was.	We were.
2. Thou wast.	You were.
3. He was.	They were.

Future Tense

1. I shall be.	We shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.	You will be.
3. He will be.	They will be.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

1. I have been.	We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	You have been.
3. He has been.	They have been.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

1. I had been.	We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	You had been.
3. He had been.	They had been.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been.	We shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	You will have been.
3. He will have been.	They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I be.	If we be.
2. If thou be.	If you be.
3. If he be.	If they be.

Past Tense

1. If I were.	If we were.
2. If thou wert.	If you were.
3. If he were.	If they were.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

1. If I have been.	If we have been.
2. If thou have been.	If you have been.
3. If he have been.	If they have been.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

1. If I had been.	If we had been.
2. If thou hadst been.	If you had been.
3. If he had been.	If they had been.

Imperative Mood. *Present. Sing. and Pl.* Be [thou *or* you].
Infinitive. *Present,* to be; *Perfect,* to have been.
Participles. *Present,* being; *Past,* been; *Perfect,* having been.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO STRIKE*

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

1. I strike.	We strike.
2. Thou strikest.	You strike.
3. He strikes.	They strike.

Past Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I struck.	We struck.
2. Thou struckest.	You struck.
3. He struck.	They struck.

Future Tense

1. I shall strike.	We shall strike.
2. Thou wilt strike.	You will strike.
3. He will strike.	They will strike.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

1. I have struck.	We have struck.
2. Thou hast struck.	You have struck.
3. He has struck.	They have struck.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

1. I had struck.	We had struck.
2. Thou hadst struck.	You had struck.
3. He had struck.	They had struck.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have struck.	We shall have struck.
2. Thou wilt have struck.	You will have struck.
3. He will have struck.	They will have struck.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

1. If I strike.	If we strike.
2. If thou strike.	If you strike.
3. If he strike.	If they strike.

Past Tense

1. If I struck.	If we struck.
2. If thou struck.	If you struck.
3. If he struck.	If they struck.

PERFECT (OR PRESENT PERFECT) TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. If I have struck.	If we have struck.
2. If thou have struck.	If you have struck.
3. If he have struck.	If they have struck.

PLUPERFECT (OR PAST PERFECT) TENSE

1. If I had struck.	If we had struck.
2. If thou hadst struck.	If you had struck.
3. If he had struck.	If they had struck.

IMPERATIVE MOOD. *Present. Sing. and Pl.* Strike [thou *or* you].
INFINITIVE. *Present,* to strike; *Perfect,* to have struck.
PARTICIPLE. *Present,* striking; *Past,* struck; *Perfect,* having struck.

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

1. I am struck.	We are struck.
2. Thou art struck.	You are struck.
3. He is struck.	They are struck.

PAST TENSE

1. I was struck.	We were struck.
2. Thou wast struck.	You were struck.
3. He was struck.	They were struck.

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall be struck.	We shall be struck.
2. Thou wilt be struck.	You will be struck.
3. He will be struck.	They will be struck.

PERFECT (OR PRESENT PERFECT) TENSE

1. I have been struck.	We have been struck.
2. Thou hast been struck.	You have been struck.
3. He has been struck.	They have been struck.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I had been struck.	We had been struck.
2. Thou hadst been struck.	You had been struck.
3. He had been struck.	They had been struck.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been struck.	We shall have been struck.
2. Thou wilt have been struck.	You will have been struck.
3. He will have been struck.	They will have been struck.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

1. If I be struck.	If we be struck.
2. If thou be struck.	If you be struck.
3. If he be struck.	If they be struck.

Past Tense

1. If I were struck.	If we were struck.
2. If thou wert struck.	If you were struck.
3. If he were struck.	If they were struck.

Perfect (or Present Perfect) Tense

1. If I have been struck.	If we have been struck.
2. If thou have been struck.	If you have been struck.
3. If he have been struck.	If they have been struck.

Pluperfect (or Past Perfect) Tense

1. If I had been struck.	If we had been struck.
2. If thou hadst been struck.	If you had been struck.
3. If he had been struck.	If they had been struck.

Imperative Mood. *Present. Sing. and Pl.* Be [thou *or* you] struck.

Infinitive. *Present,* to be struck; *Perfect,* to have been struck.

Participles. *Present,* being struck; *Past,* struck; *Perfect,* having been struck.

SUPPLEMENT

By WILLIAM M. TANNER

EXTRACTS FROM THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDY, 1921–1925

WITH NOTES FOR FURTHER PRACTICE IN PARSING AND ANALYSIS

[The references are to sections of the Grammar]

I. Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address."
II. From Macaulay's "Life of Samuel Johnson."
III. From Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration."
IV. From Carlyle's "Essay on Burns."
V. From Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America."
VI. From Washington's "Farewell Address."
VII. From Arnold's "Wordsworth."
VIII. Wordsworth's "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud."
IX. From Milton's "Il Penseroso."
X. From Shelley's "To a Skylark."
XI. Keats's "Ode on a Grecian Urn."
XII. Browning's "Home Thoughts from Abroad."
XIII. Browning's "Incident of the French Camp."
XIV. From Shakspere's "Macbeth."
XV. From Shakspere's "Hamlet."

Note to Students. A sentence is the expression of a thought, but before it can convey a thought accurately, it must be understood. Likewise, before a sentence can be properly analyzed, its meaning must be correctly interpreted. In all your efforts at correct interpretation make use of the following important aids:

1. Read carefully the entire selection at least twice.

2. Make intelligent use of an unabridged dictionary in order to learn the *exact* meaning of each word that you do not clearly understand.

3. Determine which sentences are elliptical (§§ 480–486) and supply all words that are omitted.

4. Note each sentence in which inverted order (§§ 7 and 192) occurs, and rearrange the sentence in its normal order with respect to all its elements.

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I

SPEECH AT THE DEDICATION OF THE NATIONAL CEMETERY AT GETTYSBURG

Abraham Lincoln

Fourscore and seven years[1] ago[2] our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived[3] in liberty, and dedicated[3] to the proposition that[4] all men are created[5] equal.[6] Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing[7] whether[8] that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long[9] endure. We are met[10] on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate[11] a portion of that field as[12] a final resting[13] place[14] for those who here gave their lives that[15] that nation might live. It[16] is altogether fitting[17] and proper that[16] we should[18] do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living[19] and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far[20] above our poor power to add[21] or detract.[21] The world will little[22] note, nor long[22] remember, what[23] we say here; but it can never forget what[23] they did here. It[24] is for us, the living,[25] rather to be dedicated[24] here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It[24] is rather for us to be here dedicated[24] to the great task remaining before us, that[26] from these honored dead[27] we take increased[28]

[1] § 111. [2] *Ago* is an adverb modifying *brought*. In origin *ago* is a past participle (= *agone*; that is, *gone, past*). [3] § 329. [4] The clause (in indirect discourse) is appositive to *proposition* (§§ 375, 419, 447). [5] For tense see § 421. [6] Cf. § 248. [7] Belongs to *war* (§ 329). [8] Indirect question, object of *testing* (§§ 332, 427–429). [9] § 190. [10] Perfect (present perfect) tense; *have met* is more usual (§ 238, 1, note). [11] § 314, 2. [12] The conjunction *as* is often used as a connective to introduce (1) an appositive, (2) a predicate nominative or adjective, (3) a predicate objective. Thus, (1) "William, *as agent*, took full responsibility"; (2) "Cæsar was regarded *as a tyrant*" (or "*as tyrannical*"); (3) "They chose John *as their leader*." For further discussion see below, p. 227, note 8; p. 227, note 12; p. 234, note 6; p. 236, note 9; p. 238, note 7. In origin this use of *as* involves an ellipsis, but no ellipsis is felt in fact (cf. § 486). [13] § 342. [14] § 100. [15] § 391, I. *Might* is the past tense of *may* (§§ 279, 282–283). [16] § 380. [17] §§ 333, 170, 3. [18] § 300. [19] §§ 333, 170, 2. [20] Adverb modifying the adverbial phrase (§§ 40–41) *above our poor power* (§ 462, IV). [21] § 312. [22] Adverb (§ 190). [23] § 155. [24] § 309. [25] An adjective (originally a participle, § 333) used as a plural noun (§ 175). Cf. *living* in line 11. [26] § 392. [27] Cf. § 175. [28] § 333.

devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that[1] we here highly resolve that[2] these dead[3] shall[4] not have died in vain[5]; that[2] this nation, under God, shall[4] have a new birth of freedom, and that[2] government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall[4] not perish from the earth.

II

FROM MACAULAY'S "LIFE OF SAMUEL JOHNSON"

But, though[6] his pen was now idle, his tongue was active. The influence exercised[7] by his conversation, directly upon those with whom he lived, and indirectly on the whole literary world, was altogether[8] without a parallel. His colloquial talents were, indeed,[9] of the highest order.[10] He had strong sense, quick discernment, wit, humor, immense knowledge of literature and of life, and an infinite store of curious anecdotes. As respected[11] style, he spoke far better than[12] he wrote. Every sentence which dropped from his lips was as correct in structure as the most nicely balanced period of "The Rambler."[13] But in his talk there[14] were no pompous triads, and little more[15] than[16] a fair proportion of words in *-osity* and *-ation*. All was simplicity, ease, and vigor. He uttered his short, weighty, and pointed sentences with a power of voice, and a justness and energy of emphasis, of which[17] the effect was rather increased than diminished by the rollings of his huge form, and by the asthmatic gaspings and puffings in which the peals of his eloquence generally ended. Nor did the laziness which made him unwilling[18] to sit[19] down to his desk prevent him from giving[20] instruction[21] or

[1] § 392. [2] §§ 375, 395. [3] Cf. § 175. [4] §§ 237, 297. [5] A prepositional adverbial phrase. [6] § 386. [7] § 329. [8] The adverb *altogether* modifies the adjective phrase *without a parallel* (= *matchless*). See § 457, 4, examples 8–12. [9] § 466. [10] § 457, 4. [11] *As respected* = *as for, as to* (§ 347). *As respected style* is, in strictness, an adverbial clause modifying the adverb *better* (§ 462, IV); the verb is used impersonally without a subject (cf. § 224, 1). [12] § 416. [13] Supply *is* (§ 416). [14] § 192. [15] *Triads* and *more* (connected by *and*) make the compound subject of *were* (§ 37). We need not supply *there was* before *little*. *More*, though used as a noun, is modified by the adverb *little* (§ 190), since *more* is by nature an adjective. [16] § 416. [17] This relative clause has the effect of a clause of result (§ 393): *with such a power* etc. *that the effect was rather increased* etc. [18] § 101. [19] § 312. [20] A participial noun (gerund), object of *from* (§§ 339–340). [21] § 340, 1.

entertainment orally. To discuss[1] questions of taste, of learning, of casuistry, in language so exact and so forcible that[2] it might[3] have been printed without the alteration of a word, was to him no exertion, but a pleasure. He loved, as he said,[4] to fold[5] his legs and have[5] his talk out.[6] He was ready to bestow[7] the overflowings of his full mind on anybody who would start a subject, on a fellow passenger[8] in a stagecoach, or on the person who sate[9] at the same table with him in an eating[10] house. But his conversation was nowhere so brilliant and striking as[11] when he was surrounded by a few friends, whose abilities and knowledge enabled them, as he once expressed it,[4] to send[12] him[13] back every ball that he threw. Some[14] of these, in 1764,[15] formed themselves[16] into a club, which gradually became a formidable power in the commonwealth of letters. The verdicts pronounced[17] by this conclave on new books were speedily known over all London, and were sufficient to sell[7] off a whole edition in a day, or to condemn[7] the sheets to the service of the trunk-maker and the pastry cook. Nor shall we think this strange[18] when we consider what[19] great and various talents and acquirements met in the little fraternity. Goldsmith was the representative of poetry and light literature, Reynolds[20] of the arts, Burke[20] of political eloquence and political philosophy. There,[21] too, were Gibbon, the greatest historian, and Jones, the greatest linguist, of the age. Garrick brought to the meetings his inexhaustible pleasantry, his incomparable mimicry, and his consummate knowledge of stage[22] effect. Among the most constant attendants were two high-born and high-bred gentlemen, closely bound together by friendship, but of widely different characters and habits: Bennet Langton,[23] distinguished by his skill in Greek literature, by the orthodoxy of his opinions, and by the sanctity of his life; and Topham Beauclerk,[23] renowned for his amours, his knowledge of the gay world, his fastidious taste, and his sarcastic wit. To

[1] § 308. [2] A clause of result (§ 393). [3] § 285, 2. [4] § 466. [5] § 314, note. [6] The adverb *out* modifies the infinitive *have*; *have out* = *finish, complete*. [7] § 312. [8] § 60. [9] Archaic (that is, old) past tense of *sit*. [10] § 342. [11] Supply *it was* (§ 416). [12] *Them to send* may be regarded as an infinitive clause of result (§ 396) used as the object of *enabled* (cf. § 316). Since *enabled them* is equivalent to *made them able* (*en-* being a causative prefix; see the dictionary), the infinitive is logically a modifier of the adjective *able* contained in the verb. [13] § 103. [14] § 135. [15] § 204. [16] § 126, 2. [17] § 329. [18] § 101. [19] § 429. [20] Supply the ellipsis. [21] Not the expletive. [22] §§ 25; 26, I. [23] One of the appositives to *gentlemen*.

predominate[1] over such a society was not easy. Yet[2] even[3] over such a society Johnson predominated. Burke might, indeed,[4] have disputed the supremacy to which others were under the necessity of submitting. But Burke, though[5] not generally a very patient listener, was content to take[6] the second part when Johnson was present; and the club itself, consisting of so many eminent men,[7] is to this day popularly designated as Johnson's Club.[8]

Among the members of this celebrated body was one to whom it has owed the greater part of its celebrity, yet[2] who was regarded with little respect by his brethren, and had not without difficulty obtained a seat among them. This was James Boswell, a young Scotch lawyer, heir to an honorable name and a fair estate. That[9] he was a coxcomb, and a bore, weak, vain, pushing, curious, garrulous, was obvious to all who were acquainted with him. That[9] he could not reason, that[9] he had no wit, no humor, no eloquence, is apparent from his writings.[10] And yet[2] his writings are read beyond the Mississippi, and under the Southern Cross, and are likely to be read[6] as long as the English[11] exists, either as a living or as a dead language.[12] Nature had made him a slave[13] and an idolater.[13] His mind resembled those creepers which the botanists call parasites,[13] and which can subsist only by clinging[14] round the stems and imbibing[14] the juices of stronger plants. He must[15] have fastened[15] himself on somebody. He might[16] have fastened himself on Wilkes, and have become the fiercest patriot in the Bill of Rights Society.[17] He might have fastened himself on Whitefield, and have become the loudest field preacher among the Calvinistic[18] Methodists. In a happy hour he fastened himself on Johnson. The pair might seem ill matched. For Johnson had early[19] been prejudiced against Boswell's country. To a man of Johnson's strong

[1] § 308. [2] § 354. [3] Adverb modifying the phrase that follows (§ 462, IV). [4] § 466. [5] § 386. Supply *he was* (§ 482, 2 (3)). [6] § 312. [7] § 443. [8] Predicate nominative after the passive verb *is designated* (§ 248). *As* is merely an introductory conjunction. Cf. p. 224, note 12, above. [9] § 375,1. [10] Macaulay, in his fondness for point and antithesis, is very unjust to Boswell. [11] That is, *the English language* (§ 26). [12] Appositive to *English*. The conjunction *as*, by a common idiom, connects the appositive with its noun (see above, p. 224, note 12). In origin this use is elliptical: *exists either as a living or as a dead language* [*exists*] (cf. § 416); but no such ellipsis is now felt (§ 486). [13] § 100. [14] § 340. [15] § 287. For the perfect (past) infinitive compare the usage after *ought* (§ 288). [16] § 285, 2. [17] §§ 40, 55. [18] § 168. [19] § 190.

understanding and irritable temper, the silly egotism and adulation of Boswell must have been as teasing as the constant buzz of a fly.[1] Johnson hated to be questioned[2]; and Boswell was eternally catechising[3] him on all kinds of subjects, and sometimes propounded such questions as[4] "What would[5] you do, sir, if you were locked[6] up in a tower with a baby?" Johnson was a water-drinker; and Boswell was a wine-bibber, and, indeed,[7] little[8] better than a habitual sot.[9] It[10] was impossible that there[11] should[12] be perfect harmony between two such[13] companions. Indeed,[7] the great man was sometimes provoked into fits of passion in which he said things which the small man, during[14] a few[15] hours, seriously resented. Every quarrel, however,[16] was soon made up.[17] During[14] twenty years the disciple continued to worship[18] the master: the master continued to scold[18] the disciple, to sneer[18] at[19] him, and to love[18] him. The two friends ordinarily resided at a great distance from each other.[20] Boswell practised in the Parliament House[21] of Edinburgh, and could pay only occasional visits to London. During[14] those visits his chief business was to watch[22] Johnson, to discover[22] all Johnson's habits, to turn[22] the conversation to subjects about which Johnson was likely to say[23] something remarkable, and to fill[22] quarto notebooks with minutes of what[24] Johnson had said. In this way were gathered the materials out of[14] which was afterwards constructed the most interesting[25] biographical work in the world.[26]

III

FROM WEBSTER'S "FIRST BUNKER HILL ORATION"

The leading reflection to which this occasion seems to invite[18] us, respects[27] the great changes which have happened in the fifty years since[28] the battle of Bunker Hill was fought. And it[29] peculiarly

[1] Supply *is* or *would have been* (§ 416). [2] § 314, note. [3] §§ 251–252. [4] §146. [5] Either *would* or *should* would be correct (§ 293, III). [6] § 409. [7] § 466. [8] § 190. [9] A gross exaggeration. [10] §§ 224, 2; 380. [11] § 192. [12] § 300. [13] §§ 135–136. [14] § 347. [15] § 140. [16] Conjunction connecting this sentence with the preceding (§ 352). [17] The adverb *up* added to the verb *made* completes the verb and gives to the phrase *was made up* the meaning *was reconciled*. To *make up* is practically a single word (a compound verb). [18] § 314, 1. [19] § 247, note. [20] § 138. [21] § 55. [22] § 308. [23] § 312. [24] = *that which* (§ 155). [25] § 333. [26] Note the inverted order (§ 7) throughout this sentence. [27] = *concerns, relates to*. [28] §§ 358, 382. [29] § 380.

marks the character of the present age, that,[1] in looking[2] at[3] these changes, and in estimating their effect on our condition, we are obliged to consider,[4] not what[5] has been done in our own country only, but[6] in others also. In these interesting times, while nations are making separate and individual advances in improvement, they make, too, a common progress; like[7] vessels on a common tide, propelled by the gales at different rates, according to[8] their several structure and management, but all moved forward by one mighty current, strong enough to bear[9] onward whatever[10] does not sink beneath it.

The chief distinction of the present day is a community of opinions and knowledge amongst men in different nations, existing[11] in a degree heretofore unknown. Knowledge has, in our time, triumphed, and is triumphing, over distance, over difference of languages, over diversity of habits, over prejudice, and over bigotry. The civilized and Christian world is fast[12] learning the great lesson, that[13] difference of nation does not imply necessary hostility, and that[13] all contact need[14] not[15] be war. The whole world is becoming a common field for[16] intellect to act in. Energy of mind, genius, power, wheresoever it exists, may speak out[17] in any tongue, and the world will hear it. A great chord of sentiment and feeling runs through two continents, and vibrates over both. Every breeze wafts intelligence from country to country; every wave rolls it; all give it forth, and all in turn receive it. There is a vast commerce of ideas;

[1] § 380. [2] Adverbial phrase made by means of the participial noun (gerund, §§ 338–340) and modifying the predicate verb of the clause. The phrase is equivalent to *when we look*. [3] § 247, note. [4] In the active construction (*this obliges us to consider*) the object of *obliges* would be the infinitive clause. With the passive the infinitive is retained. Compare the usage in indirect discourse (§ 423, 3). [5] Indirect question (§ 427), object of *to consider* (§ 429). [6] Supply *what has been done*. [7] The adverb *like* modifies *make*. For *vessels*, the objective (originally a dative) after *like*, see § 109. [8] § 347. [9] §§ 312, 396. [10] The compound relative pronoun *whatever* has a double construction, being the object of *to bear* and the subject of *does sink* (§ 157). It is also possible to regard the whole clause as the object (§ 155, note). [11] The predicate nominative (*community*) is modified by the participle *existing* (§ 458, 1; cf. § 443, remark after example 8). *Existing* is modified by the adverbial phrase which follows it. [12] § 190. [13] §§ 375; 419, 4. [14] The form *need* (third person singular without *s*) is made by analogy with *may*, *can*, etc. (p. 217, IV). [15] Logically, *not* is a modifier of *all*, not of *need be*. [16] § 318; *for intellect to act in* = *in which intellect may act*. [17] The adverb *out* modifies the verb *speak*.

there are[1] marts and exchanges for intellectual discoveries, and a wonderful fellowship of those individual intelligencies which make up[2] the mind and the opinion of the age. Mind is the great lever of all things; human thought is the process by which human ends are ultimately answered; and the diffusion of knowledge, so[3] astonishing in the last half-century, has rendered innumerable minds, variously gifted by nature, competent[4] to be the competitors or fellow-workers on the theatre of intellectual operation.

From these causes important improvements have taken place in the personal condition of individuals. Generally speaking,[5] mankind[6] are not only better fed and better clothed,[7] but they are able also to enjoy[8] more leisure; they possess more refinement and more self-respect. A superior tone of education, manners, and habits prevails. This remark, most true[9] in its application to our own country, is also partly true when applied[10] elsewhere. It is proved by the vastly augmented consumption of those articles of manufacture and of commerce which[11] contribute to the comforts and the decencies of life; an augmentation[12] which has far outrun the progress of population. And while[13] the unexampled and almost incredible use of machinery would seem to supply the place of labor, labor still finds its occupation and its reward;[14] so[15] wisely has Providence adjusted men's wants and desires to their condition and their capacity.

Any adequate survey, however,[16] of the progress made during[17] the last half-century in the polite and the mechanic arts, in machinery and manufactures, in commerce and agriculture, in letters and in science, would require volumes. I must abstain wholly from these subjects, and turn for the moment to the contemplation of what[18] has been done on the great question of politics and government.

[1] Three nouns in a series — *marts*, *exchanges*, and *fellowship* — make a compound subject of *are* (§§ 37, 192). It is not necessary to supply *there is* before *a wonderful fellowship*. [2] The adverb *up* completes the verb *make*; *make up* = *compose*, *constitute*. [3] *Astonishing* (§ 333) is an appositive adjective belonging to *diffusion* (§ 170, 2) and is modified by the adverb *so*. It is not necessary to supply *which has been* before *so*. [4] §§ 100–101. [5] §§ 330, 466. [6] § 228. [7] That is, *than they were fifty years ago*. [8] §§ 312, 463. [9] § 170, 2. [10] § 482, 2 (3). [11] Adjective clause modifying *articles* (§§ 368–369). [12] Appositive to *consumption* (§§ 83, 5; 112). [13] §§ 358, 386. [14] This oration was delivered on June 17, 1825. [15] *So wisely . . . capacity* is an independent clause, coördinate with *labor still finds*, etc. It is introduced by *so*, an adverb of degree (= *to such an extent*, § 189, 4). [16] Conjunction connecting this sentence (and therefore this paragraph) with the preceding. [17] § 347. [18] §§ 379; 429, 5.

This is the master[1] topic of the age; and during[2] the whole fifty years[3] it has intensely occupied the thoughts of men. The nature of civil government, its ends and uses, have[4] been canvassed and investigated; ancient opinions[5] attacked and defended; new ideas[5] recommended and resisted, by whatever[6] power the mind of man could bring to the controversy. From the closet and the public halls the debate has been transferred to the field; and the world has been shaken by wars of unexampled magnitude and the greatest variety of fortune.[7] A day of peace has at length succeeded; and now that[8] the strife has subsided, and the smoke[9] cleared away, we may begin to see[10] what[11] has actually been done, permanently changing[12] the state and condition of human society. And, without[13] dwelling on particular circumstances, it[14] is most apparent that,[14] from the before-mentioned causes of augmented knowledge and improved individual condition, a real, substantial, and important change has taken place, and is taking place, highly favorable,[15] on the whole,[16] to human liberty and human happiness.

IV

FROM CARLYLE'S "ESSAY ON BURNS"

All that remains of Burns, the writings[17] he has left, seem to us, as[18] we hinted above,[19] no more[20] than a poor mutilated fraction[21] of what[22] was in him; brief, broken glimpses[23] of a genius that could never show itself complete[24]; that wanted[25] all things for

[1] *Master* may be regarded as an adjective (= *main, chief*), or *master topic* may be taken as a compound noun (§ 60, note). [2] § 347. [3] *Fifty years* is treated as a collective noun and may therefore be limited by *the whole*, which is not regularly used attributively (§ 170, 1) with a plural noun. [4] The subject of *have been canvassed* is compound (*nature, ends, uses*). [5] Supply the ellipsis (§ 482, 2). [6] § 160. [7] The prepositional adjective phrase *of . . . fortune* modifies *wars*. [8] *now that* = *since*. The compound subordinate clause (§ 474) is an adverbial clause of *time*, but with a suggestion of *cause* as well. [9] Supply the ellipsis. [10] § 314, 1. [11] § 429. [12] Used like an appositive adjective (§ 170, 2), modifying *what*. [13] The phrase *without dwelling* etc. is equivalent to an adverbial clause of concession (§ 386), modifying *apparent* (§ 457, 4, example 7): *though I do not dwell*, etc. [14] § 380. [15] § 170, 2. [16] The adverbial phrase *on the whole* modifies *favorable*. [17] §§ 446, 150. [18] § 466. [19] § 350. [20] Predicate nominative (§ 83, 2). [21] § 416. [22] § 155. [23] Appositive to *fraction* (§ 83, 5). [24] § 101. [25] = *lacked*.

completeness: culture, leisure, true effort — nay,[1] even[2] length of life. His poems are, with[3] scarcely any exception, mere occasional effusions; poured[4] forth with little premeditation; expressing,[4] by such means as[5] offered,[6] the passion, opinion, or humor of the hour. Never in one instance was it[7] permitted him[8] to grapple[7] with any subject with the full collection of his strength, to fuse[7] and mold[7] it in the concentrated fire of his genius. To try by the strict rules of art such imperfect fragments, would be at once[9] unprofitable and unfair. Nevertheless, there is something in these poems, marred and defective as[10] they are, which forbids the most fastidious student[11] of poetry to pass them by.[12] Some sort of enduring quality they must have: for, after fifty years of the wildest vicissitudes in poetic taste, they still continue to be read[13]; nay,[1] are read[14] more and more eagerly, more and more extensively; and this[15] not only[16] by the literary virtuosos,[17] and that class upon whom transitory causes operate most strongly, but[16] by all classes, down to the most hard, unlettered, and truly natural class, who read little,[18] and especially no poetry, except[19] because they find pleasure in it.[20] The grounds of so singular and wide a popularity, which extends, in a literal sense, from the palace to the hut, and over all regions where[21] the English tongue is spoken, are well worth inquiring[22] into.[23] After every just deduction,[24]

[1] § 466. [2] *Even* (adverb modifying *wanted*, § 190) serves to emphasize *length of life*. [3] An adjective phrase modifying *poems*. [4] § 329. [5] § 146. [6] = *offered themselves* (§ 211). [7] § 309. [8] § 249, 1. [9] The phrase *at once* has here the force of the conjunction *both*, the correlative of *and* (§ 359). [10] § 389. [11] § 316. [12] § 350. [13] § 314, 1. [14] Do not supply *they*, for *continue* and *are read* make a compound predicate to *they* (§ 38). [15] The pronoun *this* has the effect of repeating the statement that begins with *after fifty years* and ends with *extensively*. It may be regarded as an adverbial objective equivalent to *indeed*. See below, p. 235, note 13. [16] *not only . . . but* is a (more emphatic) logical equivalent of *both . . . and* (§ 352). [17] The phrase *by literary virtuosos* modifies both *to be read* and *are read* (§ 245). [18] § 190. [19] § 379. [20] The antecedent of *it* is the noun *reading*, implied in the verb. [21] § 382, I. [22] A participial noun (gerund) used as adverbial objective (§ 111) after the adjective *worth*, and answering the question *Worth how much?* [23] Since a preposition with its object is often attached to a verb or verbal (infinitive, participle, participial noun), the preposition is sometimes retained with the verb or verbal in constructions in which there is no object for the preposition (cf. § 247, note). In such cases the preposition (with adverbial force) may be regarded as a part of the (compound) verb. Cf. the extract from Burke, p. 235 below, line 12. [24] Adverbial phrase modifying *to imply*.

it[1] seems to imply[2] some rare excellence in these works. What is that excellence?

To answer this question will not lead us far. The excellence of Burns is, indeed,[3] among the rarest,[4] whether[5] in poetry or prose; but, at the same time, it is plain and easily recognized[6]: his *sincerity*, his indisputable air of truth. Here are[7] no fabulous woes or joys; no hollow fantastic sentimentalities; no wire-drawn refinings, either[8] in thought or feeling: the passion that is traced before us has glowed in a living heart; the opinion[9] he utters has risen in his own understanding, and been a light to his own steps. He does not write from hearsay, but from sight and experience; it is[10] the scenes that[11] he has lived and labored amidst, that he describes: those scenes, rude and humble as they are,[12] have kindled beautiful emotions in his soul, noble thoughts, and definite resolves; and he speaks forth what[13] is in him, not from any outward call of vanity or interest, but because his heart is too[14] full to be[14] silent. He speaks it with such melody and modulation as[15] he can[16]; "in homely rustic jingle";[17] but it is his own, and genuine. This[18] is the grand secret for finding readers and retaining them: let[19] him who would[20] move[21] and convince[21] others, be[22] first moved and convinced himself.[23] Horace's rule, "*Si vis me flere*,"[24] is applicable in a wider sense than[25] the literal one.[26] To every poet, to every writer, we might say: "Be true, if you would be believed."[21] Let a man but[27] speak[22] forth with genuine earnestness the thought, the emotion, the actual condition of his own heart; and other men,

[1] The antecedent of *it* is *popularity*. [2] § 314, 1. [3] § 466. [4] Supply *excellences*. [5] §§ 359, 402. Supply the ellipsis. [6] The adjectival character of the participle is shown by the fact that *plain* and *recognized* are joined by *and*. [7] There are four subject nouns with *are*. [8] § 359. [9] § 150. [10] For analysis the sentence may be rearranged: *It that* (relative) [= *that which*] *he describes is . . . the scenes*, etc. *It* in this idiom has a collective sense and admits a plural (*scenes*) as predicate nominative. [11] Object of *amidst*. [12] Concessive (§ 389). [13] § 155. [14] § 396. [15] § 146. [16] An ellipsis; supply *speak it with*. [17] An adverbial phrase. [18] The aphoristic sentence following the colon is the antecedent of *this*. [19] This sentence is used like a direct quotation (p. 130, footnote), and as such is an appositive to *this*. For the infinitive clause see § 316. [20] = *wishes, desires*. [21] An infinitive. [22] Infinitive with *let* (§ 316). [23] Appositive to *him* (§ 126, 1). [24] "*Si vis me flere, dolendum est Primum ipsi tibi*" (If you wish me to weep, you must first *feel grief* yourself). — *Ars Poetica*, 102–103. [25] § 416. [26] § 204. [27] Adverb (= *only*).

so[1] strangely are we all knit together by the tie of sympathy, must and will give heed to him. In culture, in extent of view, we may stand above the speaker, or below him; but in either case, his words, if they are earnest and sincere, will find some response within us; for in spite of[2] all casual varieties in outward rank or inward, as face answers to face, so does the heart of man[3] to man.

. . . . . .

It is on his songs, as we believe,[4] that[5] Burns's chief influence as an author[6] will ultimately be found to depend[7]: nor, if our Fletcher's aphorism[8] is true, shall we account this a small influence.[9] "Let me make[10] the songs of a people," said he, "and you shall make its laws." Surely, if ever any poet might have equalled himself with legislators on this ground,[11] it[12] was Burns. His songs are already part of the mother tongue, not of Scotland only but of Britain, and of the millions that in all the ends of the earth speak a British language. In hut and hall, as[13] the heart unfolds itself in many-colored joy and woe of existence, the *name*, the *voice* of that joy and that woe, is the name and voice which Burns has given them. Strictly speaking,[14] perhaps no British man has so deeply affected the thoughts and feelings of so many men, as this solitary and altogether private individual,[15] with means apparently the humblest.

V

FROM BURKE'S "SPEECH ON CONCILIATION WITH AMERICA"

These, sir,[16] are my reasons for not entertaining that high opinion of untried force, by which many gentlemen for whose sentiments in other particulars I have great respect, seem to be so greatly captivated.

[1] *So strangely . . . sympathy* is an independent parenthetical sentence (§ 466). The same thought might have been expressed in a subordinate causal clause (§ 385), — *since we are all strangely knit together*, etc., — modifying *must and will give*. [2] § 347. [3] An ellipsis; supply *answer*. [4] § 466. [5] § 380. [6] Since *Burns's* = *of Burns*, *author* is used as an appositive. The conjunction *as* is idiomatically used to introduce the appositive. See p. 224, note 12. [7] § 423, 3. [8] Carlyle quotes from memory. Fletcher of Saltoun wrote: "I knew a very wise man that believed that, if a man were permitted to make all the ballads, he need not care who should make the laws of a nation." [9] § 100. [10] § 316. [11] That is, as the maker of the songs of his people. [12] § 224, 2. [13] Adverb of time (§ 358). [14] §§ 330, 466. [15] An ellipsis; supply *has affected them* (§ 416). [16] §§ 83, 3; 465.

But there is still behind[1] a third consideration concerning[2] this object, which serves to determine my opinion on the sort of policy which ought to[3] be pursued in the management of America, even more than its population and its commerce,[4] I mean its *temper and character.*

In this character of the Americans, a love of freedom is the predominating feature which marks and distinguishes the whole[5]; and as[6] an ardent[7] is always a jealous affection, your colonies become suspicious, restive, and untractable, whenever they see the least attempt to wrest[8] from them by force or shuffle[8] from them by chicane, what they think the only advantage[9] worth living[10] for.[11] This fierce spirit of liberty is stronger in the English colonies probably than[12] in any other people of the earth; and this[13] from a great variety of powerful causes; which,[14] to understand[15] the true temper of their minds, and the direction which this spirit takes, it[16] will not be amiss to lay[16] open[17] somewhat[18] more largely.

. . . . . .

The temper and character which prevail in our colonies, are, I am afraid,[19] unalterable by any human art. We cannot, I fear,[19] falsify the pedigree of this fierce people, and persuade them that[20] they are not sprung from a nation in whose veins the blood of freedom circulates. The language in which they would[21] hear you tell[22] them[23] this tale would[21] detect[24] the imposition:[25] your speech would betray you. An Englishman is the unfittest person on earth[26] to argue[8] another Englishman into slavery.

[1] § 350. [2] § 347. [3] § 288. [4] Supply *serve to determine it* (§ 416). [5] *The whole* (here a noun) = *the whole character.* [6] § 358. [7] Supply the ellipsis. [8] § 312. [9] § 100. [10] Adverbial objective after the adjective *worth* (§ 111). [11] See above, p. 232, note 23. [12] Supply *it is* (§ 416). [13] It is easy to supply *comes* or *results*; but that would be to misrepresent the construction. The effect of *this* is to repeat, with emphasis, the preceding assertion. *This* may be regarded as an adverbial objective, practically equivalent to the adverb *indeed.* (Cf. p. 232, note 15, above.) [14] Object of *lay.* [15] Purpose, modifying *lay* (§ 314, 2). [16] § 309. [17] The adjective serves as a predicate objective after *lay* (§ 101). [18] §§ 111, 140. [19] § 466. [20] Indirect discourse after *persuade* (§§ 418-419); direct, "*You are not*" etc. In this use *them* is really the indirect object of *persuade* and the *that*-clause is the direct object (§ 103). [21] § 281, 3. [22] § 313. [23] § 103. [24] = *expose, reveal.* [25] What precedes might be expanded into a less vivid future conditional sentence: *If you should tell them this tale, the language . . . would detect the imposition* (§ 413, 2). [26] Adjective phrase modifying *person.*

VI

FROM WASHINGTON'S "FAREWELL ADDRESS"

In looking[1] forward to the moment which is intended to terminate[2] the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend[3] the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country for the many honors[4] it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities[4] I have thence[5] enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness[6] unequal to my zeal. If[7] benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered[8] to your praise and as[9] an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which[10] the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious, vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging, in situations in which[11] not infrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism, the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans, by which[12] they were effected. Profoundly penetrated[13] with

[1] An adverbial phrase consisting of a preposition with a participial noun (gerund) as its object, frequently modifies a verb as an adverbial clause (of time, etc.) might do. Here *in looking* is equivalent to *when* (or *as*) *I look*, and modifies *do . . . permit*. [2] In the active voice we should have *which I intend to terminate*; the object of *intend* would be *which to terminate*, an infinitive clause of purpose (§§ 316, 397). When *intend* is changed to the passive, *which* (the subject of the infinitive *to terminate*) becomes the subject of *is intended*, and the infinitive is retained as an adverbial modifier of *is intended*. Compare the passive construction in indirect discourse (§ 423, 3, and note). [3] = *withhold*. [4] § 150. [5] That is, *from that steadfast confidence*. [6] Supply *they have been* (§ 482, 2 (3)). [7] Non-committal past condition (§ 408). The conclusion is the imperative *let* (with an infinitive clause as object) (§ 316). [8] In this infinitive clause the grammatical subject of the infinitive *be remembered* is the expletive *it*. The real (or logical) subject, however, is the clause *that . . . the constancy . . . was the . . . prop*, etc. Grammatically the *that*-clause is appositive to *it*. (See §§ 316; 380; 423, 2.) [9] *As* serves as a conjunction introducing an appositive (*example*) which explains or defines the noun clause *that . . . the constancy*, etc. (see above, p. 224, note 12). Logically, however, *as an instructive example* modifies *be remembered* (as *for an instructive example* would do), and accordingly it is attached (by *and*) to the adverbial modifier *to your praise*. [10] The adjective clause modifies *circumstances*. [11] The clause modifies *situations*. [12] The clause modifies *efforts* and *plans*. [13] Participle belonging to *I* (§ 329).

this idea, I shall carry it with me to the grave as[1] a strong incitement to unceasing vows[2] that[3] Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence; that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual; that the free Constitution which is the work of your hands may be sacredly maintained; that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue; that, in fine,[4] the happiness of the people of these States under the auspices of liberty may be made complete,[5] by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing as[6] will acquire to them the glory of recommending[7] it to the applause, the affection, and adoption, of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

VII

FROM ARNOLD'S "WORDSWORTH"

Wordsworth has been in his grave[8] for some thirty years, and certainly[4] his lovers and admirers cannot flatter themselves that[9] this great and steady light of glory as yet[10] shines over him. He is not fully recognized at home; he is not recognized at all[11] abroad. Yet[12] I firmly believe that[13] the poetical performance of Wordsworth is, after that of Shakespeare and Milton, of which all the world now recognizes the worth, undoubtedly the most considerable in our language from the Elizabethan age to the present time. Chaucer is anterior; and on other grounds, too,[14] he cannot well[15] be brought into the comparison. But taking[16] the roll of our chief poetical names, besides Shakespeare and Milton, from the age of Elizabeth downwards, and going[16] through it,— Spenser,[17] Dryden, Pope, Gray, Goldsmith, Cowper, Burns, Coleridge, Scott, Campbell, Moore, Byron, Shelley, Keats (I mention those only who are dead),[4]— I think

[1] The conjunction introduces an appositive. [2] = *solemn prayers*. [3] The substantive clauses (of purpose) that follow in a series are appositives to *vows* (§ 375, 3). In direct speech the prayers would be *May Heaven continue*, etc. (§§ 272; 285, 3). [4] § 466. [5] § 170, 3 (cf. §§ 101, 248). [6] § 146. [7] Gerund (participial noun) with *it* as object (§ 340, 1). [8] Adverbial phrase modifying *has been* (= *has lain*). [9] The causal adverbial *that*-clause modifies *flatter themselves*. [10] *As yet* is an adverbial phrase of time. [11] Adverbial phrase used to intensify the negative adverb *not*. [12] § 354. [13] §§ 418–419. [14] Modifies *other*. [15] § 197. [16] The participles *taking* and *going* belong grammatically to the subject *I* (§ 443), but logically the participial phrases are equivalent to adverbial clauses (*when I take*, etc.). [17] *Spenser*, *Dryden*, etc., are appositives to *names*.

it[1] certain[2] that[1] Wordsworth's name deserves to stand,[3] and will finally stand, above them all. Several[4] of the poets named have gifts and excellences which Wordsworth has not. But taking[5] the performance of each[6] as a whole,[7] I say that Wordsworth seems to me to have left[8] a body of poetical work superior in power, in interest, in the qualities which give enduring freshness, to that which any one of the others has left.

. . . . . .

On the whole,[8] then,[9] as I said at the beginning,[10] not only is Wordsworth eminent by reason of[10] the goodness of his best work, but he is eminent also by reason of the great body of good work which he has left to us. With the ancients I will[11] not compare him. In many respects the ancients are far above us, and yet[12] there[13] is something that we demand which they can never give. Leaving[14] the ancients, let us come[15] to the poets and poetry of Christendom. Dante, Shakespeare, Molière, Milton, Goethe, are altogether larger and more splendid luminaries in the poetical heaven than Wordsworth.[16] But I know not where[17] else,[18] among the moderns, we are to find[19] his superiors.

VIII

I WANDERED LONELY AS A CLOUD

William Wordsworth

I wandered lonely as a cloud[20]
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once[21] I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering[22] and dancing[22] in the breeze.

[1] The grammatical object of *think* is the expletive *it*; the real (or logical) object is the *that*-clause (cf. § 380). [2] § 101. [3] § 314, 1. [4] § 140. [5] See above, p. 237, note 16. [6] §§ 135–136. [7] Predicate objective (§ 100) introduced by the conjunction *as*. See above, p. 224, note 12. [8] § 466. [9] A conjunction (§ 353), connecting this sentence (and paragraph) with what precedes. [10] § 347. [11] § 234. [12] § 354. [13] § 192. [14] A participle belonging to *us* (§ 330). [15] § 273. [16] § 416. [17] §§ 376, 3; 195; 429. [18] Look up the meanings and uses of *else* in an unabridged dictionary. Here it is an adverb modifying *where*. [19] In the phrase *are to find, are to* is practically equivalent to the modal auxiliary *can*. Grammatically, the infinitive *to find* is used as a predicate adjective (§ 457, 4, end). [20] Supply *is* (§ 416). [21] *All at once* is an adverbial phrase. [22] The participles belong to *daffodils* (§§ 323, 329).

Continuous[1] as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the milky way,[2]
They stretched in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay:
Ten thousand[3] saw I at a glance,
Tossing[4] their heads in sprightly dance.

The waves beside them danced, but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee:—
A poet could not but[5] be gay
In such a jocund company:
I gazed — and gazed — but little[6] thought
What[7] wealth the show to me had brought:

For oft when on my couch I lie
In vacant or in pensive mood,
They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude;
And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.

IX

FROM MILTON'S "IL PENSEROSO"

Come, pensive nun,[8] devout and pure,
Sober, steadfast, and demure,
All[9] in robe of darkest grain
Flowing with majestic train,
And sable stole of cypress lawn
Over thy decent shoulders drawn.
Come, but keep thy wonted state,[10]
With even step, and musing gait,

[1] Adjective with *they*. [2] Supply *are* (§ 416). [3] Supply *daffodils*. [4] See above, p. 238, note 22; also § 332. [5] The infinitive *be* is the object of the preposition *but* (= *except*; §§ 310, 347). The adverbial phrase *but be gay* modifies the negative adverb *not*. Compare *A poet could do nothing but be gay*, in which *but be gay* is an adjective phrase modifying *nothing*. [6] § 190. [7] Indirect question, object of *thought* (§ 429). [8] That is, *Melancholy*, personified (§§ 57, 63). For case, see § 83, 3; cf. § 465. [9] *All* is here an adverb (= *wholly*). It modifies the adjective phrase *in robe* etc., which describes *nun*. [10] = *stateliness, majesty*.

And looks commércing[1] with the skies,
Thy rapt soul sitting in thine eyes:[2]
There, held[3] in holy passion[4] still,
Forget thyself to marble,[5] till,[6]
With a sad[7] leaden downward cast,
Thou fix[6] them on the earth as fast.[8]
And join with thee calm Peace and Quiet,[9]
Spare[10] Fast, that oft with gods doth diet,
And hears the Muses, in a ring,
Aye[11] round about Jove's altar sing.[12]
And add to these retirèd Leisure,
That in trim gardens takes his pleasure.
But first, and chiefest, with thee bring
Him that yon soars on golden wing,
Guiding the fiery-wheelèd throne,
The cherub Contemplation;
And the mute Silence hist[13] along,
'Less Philomel[14] will[15] dêign a song,
In her sweetest, saddest plight,
Smoothing the rugged brow of Night,
While Cynthia[16] checks her dragon yoke
Gently o'er th' accustomed oak.
Sweet bird,[17] that shunn'st the noise of folly,
Most musical, most melancholy!
Thee, chauntress, oft, the woods among,
I woo, to hear[18] thy even-song;
And, missing thee, I walk unseen
On the dry smooth-shaven green,

[1] = *holding converse with.* [2] § 336. [3] Participle belonging to *thou*, the unexpressed subject of the imperative *forget* (§ 263). [4] That is, *in a devout trance of holy thoughts.* [5] That is, *Stand, self-forgetful in thy absorption in holy thoughts, until thou seemest a statue of pure white marble.* [6] § 279. [7] = *sober, serious.* The figurative use of *leaden* expresses the same idea more emphatically. [8] That is, *as fast* (= *steadfastly*; § 190) *as thou didst fix them on the skies.* [9] § 57. [10] = *lean, thin.* [11] Adverb modifying *sing.* [12] § 313. [13] The construction of *hist* is uncertain. Perhaps it is an imperative (= *bring noiselessly*), or, quite as probably, a subjunctive (third person) in exhortation (= *let Silence come noiselessly*; cf. § 273). [14] That is, *the nightingale*, the *sweet bird* mentioned five lines below. [15] § 298. [16] That is, *the moon.* [17] § 83, 3. [18] § 314, 2.

To behold[1] the wandering Moon
Riding near her highest noon,
Like[2] one that had been led astray
Through the heaven's wide pathless way,
And oft, as if[3] her head she bowed,
Stooping through a fleecy cloud.

X

FROM SHELLEY'S "TO A SKYLARK"

Hail to thee,[4] blithe spirit!
Bird thou never wert,
That from heaven, or near it,
Pourest thy full heart
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art.

Higher still and higher
From the earth thou springest
Like[2] a cloud of fire;
The blue deep thou wingest,
And singing still dost soar, and soaring ever singest.

. . . . . .

Teach us, sprite or bird,
What sweet thoughts are thine;
I have never heard
Praise of love or wine
That panted forth a flood of rapture so divine:[5]

Chorus Hymenæal,
Or triumphal chaunt,
Matched with thine would be all[6]
But[7] an empty vaunt,
A thing wherein[8] we feel[9] there is some hidden want.

. . . . . .

[1] § 314, 2. [2] § 109. [3] § 414. [4] § 271. [5] Supply *as thou pourest* (§ 416). [6] *All* belongs to *chorus* and *chaunt* (*would all be but an empty vaunt*). [7] = *only*. [8] Adjective clause modifying *thing*. [9] § 484.

We look before [1] and after
And pine for what [2] is [3] not:
Our sincerest laughter
With some pain is fraught [4];
Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest thought.

Yet if [5] we could scorn
Hate, and pride, and fear;
If we were [5] things born
Not to shed [6] a tear,
I know not how [7] thy joy we ever should come near.

Better than all measures
Of delightful sound —
Better than all treasures
That in books are found —
Thy skill to poet were,[8] thou scorner of the ground! [9]

Teach [10] me half the gladness [11]
That thy brain must know,
Such harmonious madness
From my lips would flow,[12]
The world should [13] listen then — as I am listening now.

XI

ODE ON A GRECIAN URN

John Keats

Thou still unravished bride of quietness,
Thou foster-child of silence and slow time,
Sylvan historian, who canst thus express
A flowery tale more sweetly than our rhyme: [14]

[1] § 350. [2] § 155. [3] § 213. [4] = *laden*. [5] § 409. [6] With *born* (§ 396). [7] § 429. [8] § 278. [9] Note the complete inversion in the order of the sentence. [10] The imperative portion of the sentence *Teach . . . know* is equivalent to a conditional clause: *If thou wouldst teach me* etc. (§ 412). [11] §§ 103, 104. [12] §§ 484; 391, 2. [13] § 299. [14] Supply *can express it*. These first four lines consist of three vocatives, with modifiers.

What leaf-fringed legend haunts about thy shape
Of deities or mortals, or of both,
In Tempe or the dales of Arcady?
What men or gods are these? What maidens loth?[1]
What mad pursuit? What struggle to escape?[2]
What pipes and timbrels? What wild ecstasy?

Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
Are sweeter; therefore, ye soft pipes, play on;[3]
Not to the sensual ear, but, more endeared,[4]
Pipe to the spirit ditties of no tone:
Fair youth, beneath the trees, thou canst not leave
Thy song, nor ever can those trees be bare;
Bold Lover, never, never canst thou kiss,
Though[5] winning near the goal — yet, do not grieve;
She cannot fade, though thou hast not thy bliss,
For ever wilt thou love and she be fair!

Ah,[6] happy, happy boughs! that cannot shed
Your leaves, nor ever bid[7] the Spring adieu;
And, happy melodist, unwearièd,
For ever piping songs for ever new;
More happy love! more happy, happy love!
For ever warm and still to be enjoyed,[2]
For ever panting, and for ever young;
All breathing human passion far above,[8]
That[9] leaves a heart high-sorrowful and cloyed,
A burning forehead, and a parching tongue.

Who are these coming to the sacrifice?
To what green altar, O mysterious priest,
Lead'st thou that heifer lowing at the skies,
And all her silken flanks with garlands dressed?[10]

[1] In this and the following elliptical sentences supply the omitted words. [2] § 312. [3] § 350. [4] *More endeared* modifies *ditties*. [5] Supply *thou art* (§ 482, 2 (3)). [6] This stanza contains no complete sentence, but consists of exclamatory vocatives (nominatives of direct address, § 83, 3), with their modifiers. [7] § 103. [8] This line is a prepositional adjective phrase modifying *love*. [9] Adjective clause modifying *passion*. [10] Nominative absolute (§ 336; cf. § 452). Such phrases are regularly adverbial modifiers, but here the phrase is used as an adjective modifier of *heifer* and is joined to the participle *lowing* (another adjective modifier) by *and*.

What little town by river or sea shore,
Or mountain-built with peaceful citadel,
Is emptied of this folk, this pious morn?[1]
And, little town, thy streets for evermore
Will silent be; and not a soul to tell[2]
Why[3] thou art desolate, can e'er return.

O Attic shape! Fair attitude! with brede[4]
Of marble men and maidens overwrought,
With forest branches and the trodden weed;
Thou, silent form, dost tease us out of thought
As doth eternity: Cold Pastoral!
When old age shall[5] this generation waste,
Thou shalt[6] remain, in midst of other woe
Than ours, a friend to man, to whom thou say'st,
"Beauty is truth, truth beauty," — that is all[7]
Ye know on earth, and all[7] ye need to know.[8]

XII

HOME THOUGHTS FROM ABROAD

ROBERT BROWNING

Oh,[9] to be in England
Now that[10] April 's there,
And[11] whoever[12] wakes in England
Sees, some morning,[1] unaware,[13]
That the lowest boughs and the brushwood sheaf
Round the elm-tree bole are in tiny leaf,[14]
While[15] the chaffinch sings on the orchard bough
In England — now!

[1] § 111. [2] Purpose, with *return* (§ 314, 2). [3] § 429. [4] = *embroidery, ornament.* [5] § 297. [6] *Shall* (instead of *will*) may be used in the second and third person in a prophecy. [7] § 150. [8] § 314, 1. [9] § 311. [10] *Now that* introduces a clause of time (modifying *to be in England*), with a suggestion of cause (§§ 382, 384). [11] Supply *now that*. [12] § 157. [13] Adverb (= *unexpectedly*) (§ 190). [14] Adjective phrase used as a complement (predicate adjective); see § 457, 4, examples 8–12. [15] The *while*-clause modifies *are* (*in tiny leaf*).

And[1] after April, when May follows,
And the whitethroat builds, and all the swallows![2]
Hark, where[3] my blossomed pear-tree in the hedge
Leans to the field and scatters on the clover
Blossoms and dewdrops — at the bent spray's edge —
That 's the wise thrush; he sings each song twice[4] over,[5]
Lest[6] you should think[7] he never could recapture
The first fine careless rapture!
And though the fields look rough[8] with hoary dew,
All will be gay when noontide wakes anew
The buttercups, the little children's dower
— Far brighter than this gaudy melon-flower![9]

XIII

INCIDENT OF THE FRENCH CAMP

Robert Browning

You know,[7] we French stormed Ratisbon:
A mile[10] or so away,
On a little mound, Napoleon
Stood on our storming[11] day;
With neck out-thrust, you fancy how,[12]
Legs wide, arms locked behind,[13]
As if[14] to balance[15] the prone brow
Oppressive with its mind.

Just as[16] perhaps he mused,[17] "My plans
That soar, to earth may fall,
Let[18] once my army-leader Lannes
Waver at yonder wall," —

[1] The adverbial phrase *after April* modifies *to be* (*in England*) in line 1. It is connected by *and* with the former modifiers: thus, *Oh, to be in England now that April's there* (etc.) "*and*" *after April*. [2] Supply *build* (§ 211). [3] The clause modifies *hark*, indicating the place toward which the listening should be directed. [4] §§ 202, 205. [5] Adverb (§ 350). [6] §§ 297, 392. [7] § 484. [8] § 172. [9] § 416. [10] § 111. [11] § 342. [12] § 466. Supply *he stood* (§ 429). [13] § 350. [14] That is, *as if they* [the arms] *were locked behind to balance* etc. (§§ 356, 414). [15] § 396. [16] § 358. *Just* is an adverb modifying *as* (§ 190). [17] § 417, and footnote. [18] § 316. The clause *let . . . wall* is equivalent to an adverbial clause of condition (*if*, etc.) (§ 404).

Out 'twixt the battery-smokes there[1] flew
A rider, bound on bound[2]
Full-galloping[3]; nor[4] bridle drew
Until he reached the mound.

Then off there[5] flung[6] in smiling joy,
And held himself erect
By just his horse's mane, a boy:
You hardly could suspect[7] —
(So tight he kept his lips compressed[8]
Scarce[9] any blood came through)
You looked twice[10] ere you saw[11] his breast
Was all but[12] shot in two.

Well,"[13] cried he, "Emperor, by God's grace
We've got you[14] Ratisbon!
The Marshal 's in the market-place,
And you'll be there anon
To see[15] your flag-bird flap[16] his vans[17]
Where I, to[18] heart's desire,
Perched him!" The chief's eye flashed; his plans
Soared up again like fire.[19]

The chief's eye flashed; but presently
Softened itself, as sheathes
A film the mother-eagle's eye
When her bruised eaglet breathes:

[1] § 192. [2] § 111. [3] The poet has compounded the adverb *full* (§ 190) with the participle *galloping*. Grammatically *galloping* belongs to *rider* and *full* modifies *galloping*. The compound was suggested, no doubt, by the phrase *at full gallop*, to which it is logically equivalent. [4] The conjunction *nor* connects the two verbs of the compound predicate (§ 37) — *flew, drew*. [5] = *at the mound*. The subject of *flung* is *boy*, two lines below. Note inverted order. [6] Used absolutely (§ 211). We need not supply *himself*. [7] There is no object for this verb. The sentence is broken by the parenthesis and is never finished, a new sentence beginning with *You looked*. [8] § 101. [9] § 190. [10] §§ 202, 205. [11] § 484. [12] The adverbial phrase *all but* has the meaning of the adverb *almost* or *nearly* and modifies the adverbial phrase *in two*. [13] § 365. [14] § 108. [15] § 396. [16] § 313. [17] *vans* = *broad wings* (§ 306). [18] *to* = *according to* (§ 347). [19] § 109; *like* is an adverb here.

"You're wounded!" "Nay," the soldier's pride
Touched[1] to the quick, he said:
"I'm killed, sire!" And his chief beside,
Smiling the boy fell dead.[2]

XIV

FROM SHAKSPERE'S "MACBETH"

Macbeth. If it[3] were done[4] when 't is done, then 't[5] were well[6]
It were[7] done quickly. If[8] the assassination
Could trammel up the consequence,[9] and catch
With his surcease[10] success; that[11] but[12] this blow
Might be the be-all[13] and the end-all[13] here,
But[12] here, upon this bank and shoal of time,
We'd jump[14] the life to come.[15] But in these cases
We still[16] have judgment here; that[11] we but[12] teach
Bloody instructions, which, being taught,[17] return
To plague[18] the inventor. This even-handed justice
Commends[19] the ingredients of our poison'd chalice
To our own lips. He 's[20] here in double trust:
First,[21] as[22] I am his kinsman and his subject,
Strong both[23] against the deed; then,[21] as[24] his host,

[1] §§ 335–336. [2] § 170, 3; cf. § 212. [3] The antecedent of *it*, though vividly present to the speaker's mind, is not mentioned until the next sentence. [4] Present condition contrary to fact (§ 409); the conclusion is *'t were well* etc. (§ 278). [5] § 380. [6] § 357. [7] In modern prose, *should be* (§§ 281, 300). [8] § 409. [9] = *the sequel*; that is, *capture* (*the future*) *as in a trammel*, or *net*; *success* also means *the sequel*, *that which may follow*, and thus is synonymous with *consequence*. [10] That is, *his* (*Duncan's*) *death*. [11] = *so that* (§ 393). [12] = *only*. [13] A noun. [14] = *risk*. [15] § 312. [16] = *always*. [17] = *having been taught* (§ 326). The participle belongs to *which* (§ 329), but has the effect of a clause of time (*when they have been taught*) modifying *return* (§ 382). [18] § 314, 2. [19] = *puts*, *applies*. [20] The antecedent of *he* is *Duncan*, mentioned four lines below (cf. note 3). [21] *First* and *then* (= *secondly*) are adverbs modifying the phrase *in double trust*. [22] *As* = *in that*, *by virtue of the fact that*. The clause modifies *in double trust*. [23] = *both being strong* (§§ 336–337). Grammatically *both* refers to *kinsman* and *subject*, but logically it refers to the abstract ideas *kinship* and *loyalty* (implied in these nouns). [24] Supply *I am* and see note 22.

Who should[1] against his murtherer shut the door,
Not bear the knife myself.[2] Besides, this Duncan
Hath borne his faculties[3] so meek,[4] hath been
So clear[5] in his great office, that[6] his virtues
Will plead like[7] angels trumpet-tongu'd against
The deep damnation of his taking-off;[8]
And Pity, like[9] a naked new-born babe,[7]
Striding[10] the blast, or heaven's cherubin, hors'd
Upon the sightless[11] couriers of the air,
Shall[12] blow the horrid deed in[13] every eye,
That[14] tears shall[12] drown the wind. I have no spur
To prick[15] the sides of my intent, but only
Vaulting ambition, which o'erleaps itself[16]
And falls on the other side.

XV

FROM SHAKSPERE'S "HAMLET"

Hamlet. How[17] all occasions do[18] inform against me,
And spur my dull revenge! What is a man,
If his chief good and market of his time[19]
Be[20] but to sleep[21] and feed[21]? A beast, no more.[22]
Sure[23] He that made us with such large discourse,[24]
Looking before and after, gave us not

[1] § 288. [2] § 126, 1. [3] = *powers, authority.* [4] § 190 (in prose, *meekly*). [5] = *blameless.* [6] §§ 391, 393. [7] § 109. [8] *His* is a good example of the genitive (possessive) indicating the object of an action (the so-called objective genitive): *his taking-off* is "the act which takes *him* off" (that is, *kills him*). [9] An adjective (= *in the form of*). [10] = *riding upon.* [11] = *invisible.* [12] Used to express prophecy. [13] = *into.* [14] = *so that* (§ 393). [15] § 312. [16] § 126, 2. [17] Interrogative adverb introducing an exclamatory sentence (§ 4, 4). [18] § 255. The so-called emphatic form is common in older English, in all kinds of sentences, without the effect of emphasis. [19] = *that for which he sells his time, the use he makes of his life.* [20] The subjunctive in the present condition brings out the hypothetical nature of the idea (as a *supposed case* merely) more strongly than the ordinary indicative (§ 408). [21] § 308. [22] An elliptical answer to the preceding question: [*He is*] *a beast. More* is appositive to *beast.* [23] § 190 (in prose, *surely*); § 466. [24] = *power of reason.*

That capability and godlike reason
To fust [1] in us unus'd. Now, whether [2] it be
Bestial oblivion,[3] or some craven [4] scruple
Of [5] thinking too precisely on the event,[6] —
A thought which, quarter'd, hath but one part wisdom [7]
And ever three parts coward, — I do not know
Why [8] yet I live to say,[9] " This thing 's to do," [10]
Sith [11] I have cause and will and strength and means
To do 't.[12] Examples gross [13] as earth [14] exhort me;
Witness [15] this army of such mass and charge,[16]
Led by a delicate and tender prince,
Whose spirit with divine ambition puff'd [17]
Makes mouths at [18] the invisible event,[19]
Exposing what [20] is mortal and unsure
To all that fortune, death, and danger dare,[21]
Even for an egg-shell. Rightly to be [22] great
Is not [23] to stir [22] without great argument,[24]
But greatly to find quarrel [25] in a straw [26]
When honor 's at the stake. How stand I then [27]
That have a father kill'd,[28] a mother stain'd,[28]
Excitements of my reason and my blood,
And let all sleep,[29] while to my shame I see
The imminent death of twenty thousand men
That for a fantasy [30] and trick of fame [31]
Go to their graves like beds,[32] fight for a plot

[1] = *to grow musty* (§ 314, 2). [2] §§ 402, 359. [3] = *forgetfulness*. [4] An adjective. [5] *Of* = *consisting in*. [6] = *the outcome, the issue*. [7] *Wisdom* is used as an appositive to *part* (instead of the adjective phrase *of wisdom*). Do not supply *of*. [8] § 429. [9] Result (§ 396). [10] The infinitive *to do* (= *for doing* = *unaccomplished*) is used as a complement (predicate adjective); see § 457, 4, end. Note that the so-called active infinitive (*to do*) may sometimes be identical in meaning with the passive (*to be done*). [11] = *since* (causal). [12] § 312. [13] = *obvious, palpable*. [14] § 416. [15] *Witness this army* is an exhortation (*let this army testify* [to the fact that I have examples etc.]); cf. § 273. *Witness* is a subjunctive and *army* is its subject. [16] = *cost*. [17] = *puff'd up, exalted*. [18] = *scorns, derides*. [19] = *outcome*. [20] § 155. [21] Here used with a cognate object (the relative pronoun *that*) (§ 110). Do not supply *to do*. [22] § 308. [23] The adverb *not* modifies *to stir*. [24] = *cause* (for resentful action). [25] = *a cause for quarrel*. [26] = *a mere trifle*. [27] § 353. [28] § 329. [29] § 316. [30] = *a fancy, a mere notion*. [31] = *a trivial point of reputation*. [32] § 109. The adverbial phrase *like beds* (= *as if to their beds*) modifies *go*.

Whereon the numbers cannot try the cause,[1]
Which is not tomb enough and continent[2]
To hide[3] the slain[4]? O, from this time forth,[5]
My thoughts be bloody, or be nothing[6] worth!

[1] That is, *a piece of ground that is not large enough to hold the armies that fight for its possession.* [2] = *container, receptacle.* [3] Result (§ 396); the infinitive modifies the adjective *enough* (§ 312). [4] The past participle (being an adjective in its nature), when preceded by *the*, may be used as a plural noun (§ 175). [5] The exclamatory sentence expresses a resolution. The subjunctive (*be*) is the same as that used in prayers and exhortations (§§ 270, 273). [6] Adverbial objective modifying the adjective *worth* (§ 111).

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